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ABSTRACT

This curriculum guide is designed to provide background information and a suggested format for instructors engaged in the training of child development associate (CDA) family day care providers in the competency goal of families. Part 1 provides the trainer with an overview of current research on families in family day care and their hopes and concerns relating to day care. This information is valuable for background knowledge and can be incorporated into classroom lectures/discussion or read by the student who is working alone. Part 2 is divided into four unit outlines for use by the trainer in a class situation or by the student working alone. The four units are: structure of families; communication with families; families and child development; and families and cultures. Each curriculum unit outline includes teaching objectives, CDA sample caregiver behaviors, content outline, suggested teaching methods and evaluation approaches, and resource materials. The units emphasize a competency-based curriculum, which trainers are encouraged to individualize to the needs and experiences of the family day care providers. Extensive appendixes include materials on the structure of families including the developmental content of the families competency goal; materials on communication with families including a list of steps in choosing child care and a forced choice values test for the CDA student; information on developmental stages, engaging parents in problem solving, and toilet training; and reprints of three articles concerning families and cultures. A bibliography is provided. (YLB)

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COMPETENCY GOAL IV FAMILIES

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Curriculum Guide for THE CHILD DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATE NATIONAL CREDENTIALING PROGRAM

CDA Assessment System and Competency Standards for Family Day Care Providers

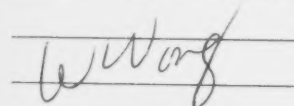
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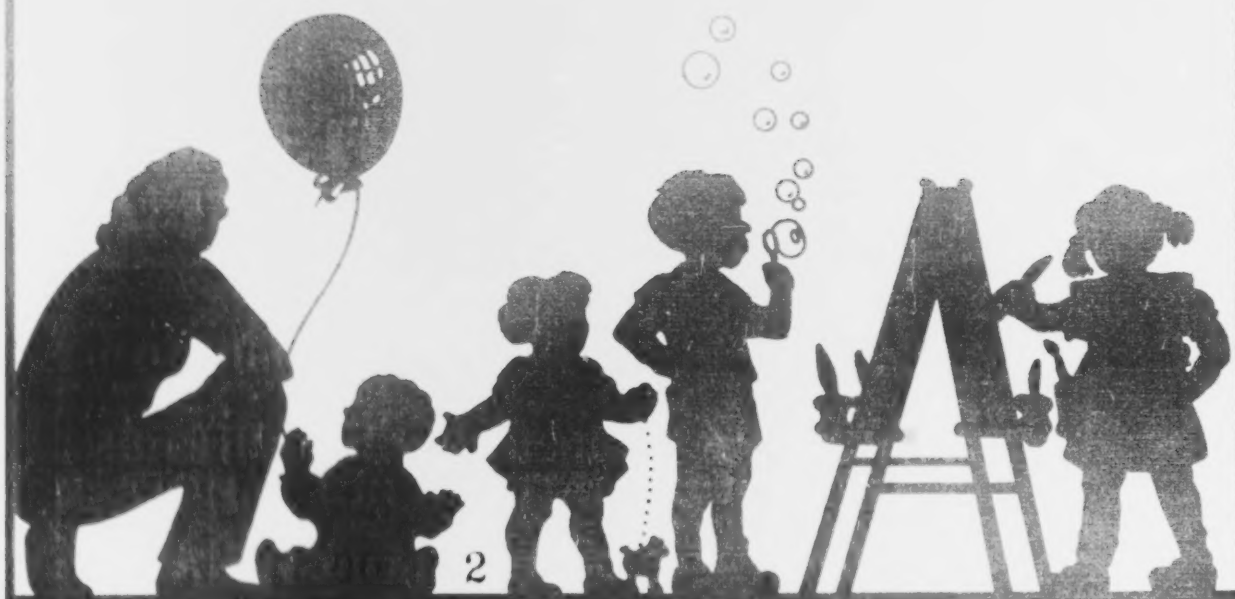
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CURRICULUM GUIDE
for
THE CHILD DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATE
NATIONAL CREDENTIALING PROGRAM
CDA ASSESSMENT SYSTEM
and
COMPETENCY STANDARDS
for
FAMILY DAY CARE PROVIDERS
COMPETENCY GOAL IV: FAMILIES

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ABSTRACT

The National Day Care Home Study of 1981 estimates that 1.5 million family day care providers care for more than 5 million of the nation's children each day. The Children's Defense Fund (1987) projects that by 1995 more than three-quarters of all school age children and two-thirds of preschool children will have mothers in the labor force. It can be concluded that the majority of these children will be cared for in family day care homes rather than other types of child care settings. Of these children, infants and toddlers under three years of age will make up the largest component.

Families choose family day care homes for their children primarily from a desire to form a closer relationship with their child's day care provider and to place their child in a homelike atmosphere. This places a responsibility on the Provider to work with the family in planning and caring for the child, as well as becoming a part of the social support network for the family.

The Child Development Associate (CDA) competency standards and assessment system for family day care have been developed to support quality care for young children. Families who place their child with a CDA family day care provider may be reassured that the Provider will have the knowledge and skills necessary to meet the responsibility and jointly provide the best possible care for the child.

This curriculum guide is designed to provide background information and a suggested format for instructors engaged in the training of CDA family

day care providers in the competency goal of *families*. The guide consists of three parts which work together:

Part 1: Overview of Current Research on families in family day care

Part 2: Curriculum Units

Part 3: Articles in the Appendix

Part 1 provides the trainer with current research on families and their hopes and concerns related to day care. This information is valuable for back-ground knowledge and can be incorporated into classroom lectures/discussion or read by the Candidate who may be working alone.

Part 2 is divided into four unit outlines for use by the trainer in a class situation or by the Candidate, who may be working alone. The four units are:

Structure of Families

Communication with Families

Families and Child Development

Families and Cultures

Each curriculum unit outline includes:

1. Teaching Objectives
2. CDA Sample Caregiver Behaviors
3. Content Outline
4. Suggested Teaching Methods
5. Evaluation
6. Resource Materials

The four units emphasize a competency based curriculum. Trainers are encouraged to individualize the curriculum to the needs and diverse experiences of the family day care providers, and add additional resources that will meet the needs of the Candidate/Trainer.

Further information on uses of this curriculum guide are contained in the section of Part 2 titled: Explanation of Curriculum.

DEFINITIONS

ADVISOR	(Taken from the glossary of CDA terms) A professional in early childhood education who serves as one of the four members of the Local Assessment team. The Advisor works with the Candidate for a minimum of 12 weeks, observes the Candidate at work, prepares an observation report, and participates in the Local Assessment team meeting.
CANDIDATE	A family day care provider working on their Child Development Associate Certification
CDA	Child Development Associate
CREDENTIAL	(Taken from the glossary of CDA terms) A written document from an authorizing body showing that a person has met certain standards. The CDA Credential is awarded to caregivers who have demonstrated competence in the CDA competency standards during the CDA assessment process.
CUSTODIAL ADULT	The adult(s) who are legally responsible for the care and welfare of a child.
ECE	Early Childhood Education
EARLY CHILDHOOD	Birth through age eight

ERIC/EECE	The Educational Resources Information Center/ Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education
FAMILY	The children, adults with whom they live and any other adults with custodial or visiting privileges.
FAMILY DAY CARE	(Taken from the glossary of CDA terms) A family day care setting for CDA assessment is defined as: <i>a family day care home that meets at least the minimum level of applicable state and local regulations, where a candidate can be observed working as a primary caregiver with at least two children 5 years old and younger who are not related by blood or marriage.</i>
INFANTS	Children between the ages of birth and 12 months
NAEYC	National Association for the Education of Young Children
PORTFOLIO	(Taken from the glossary of CDA terms) A document in which a CDA candidate presents information about her/his own work. The portfolio must contain an autobiographical statement, a program description, and three written examples of the Candidate's work in each of the 13 functional areas.
PRESCHOOLERS	Children from three through five years of age. Children in kindergarten are considered preschoolers in this Curriculum Guide.

PROVIDER

A professional child care worker who offers quality care for children. This quality care requires many different skills.

TODDLERS

Children between the ages of 13 months and 36 months.

TRAINER

(Taken from the glossary of CDA terms) An individual who teaches classes, conducts workshops, models activities with children and families, or works with caregivers individually to improve their skills.

PART 1: OVERVIEW OF CURRENT RESEARCH ON FAMILIES

CHILDCARE NEEDS OF FAMILIES

Today's families are rapidly becoming units where all adult members of a family are engaged in a gainful occupation outside of the home. In 1985, the last year with statistics available, 9.6 million children have mothers who are in the labor force. The Children's Defense Fund (1987) projects that by 1995 more than three-quarters of all school age children and two-thirds of preschool children will have mothers in the labor force.¹ These families find it difficult to locate care that meets their work schedules, to identify and secure quality care and to pay for this care. For many parents, this need is being filled by family day care providers, especially for children under three years of age.

Child care in a home setting is frequently the choice for families with infants and toddlers. The most rapid increase of mothers in the work force has been in working mothers of children who are younger than 3 years of age. In fact, 48% of all mothers of children younger than 1 year old are in the work force (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1986).² These parents frequently have no choice for child care in a center as there are too few spaces for infant care in centers and the cost is prohibitive for many parents.

Families choose home day care in preference to other types of day care for several reasons. The most important reason is that it is perceived as being "homelike." Pence & Goelman (1987) state that parents choosing licensed home day care in the Victoria Day Care Research Project (VDCRP) were found to be more anxious to stay home with their children than

parents using center care or unlicensed family day care (a neighbor or relative). These parents place high priority on the homelike atmosphere for their children and also proved to be concerned for the "child's emotional well-being" as well as their own sense of "parental guilt." This study showed that parents choosing licensed home day care for children under three years of age were especially committed to home day care.³

A part of this homelike atmosphere is the ability of the family to relate to the provider. A similar understanding of values, parenting styles, culture, and home environment will contribute to this relationship. The provider needs to be honest with the family at the beginning interview and have, as well, the ability to evaluate the family and the child to determine that they will fit into the day care "family".⁴

Another reason which families state for choosing family day care is that of proximity to the family's home and flexible time. A family who can use the often flexible time offered by a family day care Provider and leave the children in the immediate community feel that their children have a more secure sense of emotional well-being. The family day care Provider will need to be sensitive to this need and respond to it within the framework of her child care business.

FAMILY STRUCTURE AND CHANGE

Fewer families today are the traditional two parent/children family of the past. Children now live with a single parent, either father or mother; in multiple-parent, multiple dwelling families (including stepparents and live-

in lovers, both heterosexual and homosexual); with foster parents; in communal settings with several adults acting as parents; with aunt, uncles, brothers or sisters; or with a teen parent/parents and grandparent(s) as well as the more traditional family. For this reason, the curriculum area refers to the *custodial adult* rather than the *parent*.

Family day care Providers need to know the special strengths and stresses that are found in such family configurations as well as ways to communicate with these persons. Multiple-parent families will present special stresses with children adjusting to many new relationships, as well as those in the day care setting. The child who is in a custodial situation due to a death in the family or court action will need time to grieve for the lost relationships and will also need understanding and support from the Provider. Frequently, following a divorce, parents have shared custody of the child and, in this case, special provision needs to be made by the Provider. As an example, the child can be encouraged to make two presents, the Provider can send two reports, and be aware of the visitation rights of the parents.⁵

In addition to the family configuration, the family day care Provider will need to know her/his own values and parenting style and be able to work with the values and parenting style of the family. Baumrind has defined three basic parenting styles: the authoritarian parent who attempts to shape, control and evaluate the behavior and attitudes of the child in accordance with a set standard of conduct; the permissive parent who attempts to behave in a nonpunitive, acceptable and affirmative manner

toward the child; and the authoritative parent, who attempts to direct the child's activities but in a rational issue-oriented manner.⁶ The family day care Providers will need to be able to assess the parenting style of the family as efficiently as possible and build skills for working with the family in an affirmative manner.

The values held by the family and the family day care Providers may be congruent some of the time and in conflict other times. The Provider may have more experience with many children and have, as well, spent considerable time studying different aspects of child care such as child development or appropriate environments or activities for children. In addition, she probably reflects and cherishes so-called middle class values. She feels justified in insisting that her values and point of view are correct. The family has more experience with the child and also has the primary responsibility of the childhood until adulthood is reached. The family also has a value system and a point of view derived from their cultural, ethnic and/or socioeconomic group, which may or may not be "middle class."

Lillian Katz, in her article on *Ethical Issues*, raises several aspects important to resolving issues that may arise between parents and Providers.⁷ The difficulty of determining the client, or clients, is one such aspect. Although preschool workers would unhesitatingly define their client as "the child," Katz says,

"It is probably more realistic to order the client groups into a hierarchy so that parents are the primary group,

children second, and the employing agency and the larger community third."

Knowledge and skills in working with cultural, ethnic, socioeconomic and religious factors play an important part in working successfully with families. Some families will search for a Provider with the same cultural background. The family day care Providers will need knowledge about the cultural and religious background of her children and an ability to implement activities and work with families to build the self esteem of the child. Communication is especially important with a family from another culture since the Provider's experiences for the child may not be shared by the family and thus may not be reinforced at home, and home experiences may have little meaning for the Provider and thus not be reinforced.

The socioeconomic status of the family may be more important than the ethnic or other aspects of the family's cultural experience. For example, middle class values are shared with black and white families alike and, conversely, poverty has more effect on families than do ethnic or other cultural experiences.⁸ Hale-Benson includes in the article *Black Children: Their Roots, Culture, and Learning Styles* a description of the analytical and relational cognitive styles as well as a description of children who are highly affective. The article and an article on Asian culture are included in this guide in the Appendix.

COMMUNICATING WITH FAMILIES

The VDCRP (Pence 1987) reports no significant relationship differences between parents and Providers/teachers/caregivers at the beginning of the arrangements for child care in either centers or family day care homes. However, a significant change is reported for parents in family day care at the time of the interview. Pence says,

"... family day care parents were much more apt to exchange various types of information beyond 'in a business way' with caregivers and often shared a 'good friend' relationship." 9

Families choosing Family Day Care expect to develop a relationship that emphasizes sharing information, interest and concern with the provider. The family day care Providers needs to find ways to provide both spoken and written communication with the family. Examples of children's work, check sheets of activities undertaken/ completed by the children, news of the other families in the day care and information about the Provider's own successes are important in the communication exchange.

FAMILIES OF INFANTS AND TODDLERS

Day Care Providers care for many more infants and toddler children than do day care centers since there is not enough room in centers for all the infants and toddlers who need care and the cost is prohibitive for many families. In addition, many parents prefer the family day care setting

because of the smaller number of children and the more intimate relationship between Provider and child. Family day care Providers need to become "experts" in infant and toddler development, care, and activities, and need to be able to communicate this information successfully to parents. Since infants and toddlers have no verbal communication or are only beginning to talk, the family is especially dependent on information from the Provider.

Information is also important to families of infants and toddlers as part of their social support network. Families who have their first child in day care are relatively anxious and insecure about their parenting skills and their child's well-being. Edwards (1987) in her study on the *Influence of Model Infant-Toddler Group Care on Parent-Child Interaction at Home* discusses the importance of a social support network for parents of infants and toddlers and the possibility of professionally trained teachers becoming a part of that support network. This study indicates some success on the part of a day care center in modeling appropriate environments for infants and toddlers and raises the possibility of modeling appropriate behaviors for parents. The study was inconclusive about the latter possibility.¹⁰

Family day care Providers should consider the importance of becoming a part of the social support network for the families with children in their care. This can be done, in part, by providing opportunities for families to form a social support network among themselves. Family day care Providers must protect the confidentiality of families, while facilitating this networking process, and encourage families to form their own networking

system, with a minimum of help. Care must also be taken by the Provider to be sure that the families of the children in her care do not intrude upon her private time with her own family and that she does not become a therapist or undertake other counselling activities for which she is not qualified.¹¹

One of the most difficult behaviors for families, especially those who must leave infants and toddlers, is that of separation. Families who are experiencing guilty feelings about leaving their children find the daily separation process extremely hard. Johns and Harvey (1987) in their article *Engaging Parents in Solving Problems: A Strategy for Enhancing Self-Esteem* suggest a series of problem solving steps that involve parents in the solution for their child's separation process. The article proposes that the parent's self esteem will be increased as s/he solves the problem cooperatively with the provider. Since families in Family Day Care homes are more likely to experience guilt feelings, a problem solving technique such as the article describes should assist such families significantly in viewing themselves as a part of the solution instead of the problem.¹²

SAYING GOODBYE - FAMILIES WHO LEAVE FAMILY DAY CARE

Eventually families will find it necessary to leave family day care and attend another school/day care situation. This is another form of separation for the child and family and they may find this adjustment as difficult as the adjustments necessary when the child is initially left at the day care. Children who have been prepared for separations, whether at the beginning or the end of their family day care experience, seem to handle separations more positively. Both the Provider and the family will need time to adjust

to the idea of separation gradually, if possible, and an opportunity to plan with both the family and the Provider for the coming next step. Hopefully, the family and the Provider will be able to provide the child with a chance to "keep in touch" for a short time to help ease the transition between Family Day Care and the next step.¹³

CONCLUSIONS

Working with families is an important part of a Family Day Care Provider's job. The family, rather than only the child, is her client and the family will expect to build and maintain a close working relationship with her. Each family day care provider must make informed decisions about children and families with whom she can work successfully. Knowledge about a parent's expectation of family day care, development of the children in her care, the culture and values of the children and their families and the ability to communicate comfortably and efficiently with the families will make the job of family day care provider easier and enhance the Provider's professional standing.

Each Candidate, as she assembles her portfolio and learns about children and families, will need to decide what level of support she can provide for families and how much information she needs and should give families. She will also need to decide what children will fit comfortably into her day care family and what the age and characteristics of those children and their families will be.

A Candidate who knows her own values, style, abilities and limitations will be more successful and derive a greater feeling of satisfaction from a job well done.

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- 1 **A Children's Defense Budget: FY 1988.** 1987. Washington D. C., Children's Defense Fund.
 - 2 Modigliani, K, Reiff, M and S. Jones. 1987. **Opening Your Door to Children: How to Start a Family Day Care Program.** Washington, D.C., National Association for the Education of Young Children.
 - 3 Pence, A. and H. Goelman. 1987. *Silent Partners: Parents of Children in Three Types of Day Care.* Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 2, p. 110.
 - 4 Alston, F. K. 1984. **Caring for Other People's Children: A Complete Guide to Family Day Care.** Baltimore, Maryland, University Park Press. pp. 31-37
 - 5 Brenner, A., 1984. **Helping Children Cope with Stress.** Lexington, Massachusetts, D. C. Heath and Company.
 - 6 Berns, R. M., 1985. **Child, Family and Community.** New York, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston. p 110.
 - 7 Katz, L., 1984. **More Talks with Teachers.** Urbana, Illinois, ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education, p. 50.
 - 8 Hale-Benson, J., 1986. *Black Children: Their Roots, Culture, and Learning Styles.* Young Children, January 1981, pp. 37 - 50.
 - 9 Pence, A. and H. Goelman. 1987. *Silent Partners: Parents of Children in Three Types of Day Care.* Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 2, p. 114.
 - 10 Edwards, C. P., M. E. Logue, S. Lochr and S. Roth. 1986. *The Influence of Model Infant-Toddler Group Care on Parent -Child Interaction at Home.* Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 1: 4, 317-332.
 - 11 Alston, F. K. 1984. **Caring for Other People's Children: A Complete Guide to Family Day Care.** Baltimore, Maryland, University Park Press.
 - 12 Johns, N. and Cathie Harvey, **Engaging Parents in Solving Problem A Strategy for Enhancing Self-Esteem.** Child Care Information Exchange 58 (1987): 25-28.

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- ¹³ McCracken, J. B., ed., 1986. **Reducing Stress in Young Children's Lives.** Washington, D. C., National Association for the Education of Young Children. Ziegler, *Saying Good-Bye to Preschool*, p. 30-34.

PART 2: CURRICULUM UNITS

EXPLANATION OF CURRICULUM MODULES

Child Development Associate for Family Day Care Providers,

Competency Goal IV: Families

These curriculum units are written for classes for family day care providers, such as a community college, vocational-technical class, or other institutions that offer classes to candidates for CDA credentialing or trainers who wish to provide workshops or vocational inservice activities for family day care providers. They can also be used by the family day care provider who wishes to work independently on this competency goal. Each unit is written with suggestions for objectives, sample caregiver behaviors, content outline, suggested teaching methods and an evaluation of the candidate's work. These are suggestions only. Each teacher and candidate will bring different experiences, resources, strengths and needs to the units. Some suggestions will be unnecessary and some candidates will wish to explore areas which are not listed.

Several texts are possible for use with these units. All candidates should have a copy of Modigliani, Reiff and Jones: *Opening Your Door to Children: How to Start a Family Day Care Program* published by NAEYC. In addition, those candidates working independently with an advisor may wish to obtain a more detailed textbook, such as Alston: *Caring for Other People's Children: A Complete Guide to Family Day Care*. Candidates choosing to work independently may also wish to find another person with whom to practice some of the interactive exercises such as interviewing or conferencing.

Each candidate should consider his/her needs, expectations and strengths when planning to work on these units and adapt the units accordingly. A teacher/trainer is a facilitator but each candidate is responsible for communicating with the trainer so that the most benefit may be derived from the work. In addition, each candidate should have in her/his portfolio written work and resources that will be helpful on the job when working with the custodial adult. Families who choose Home Day Care are especially interested in communication with the Day Care Provider, and skill in working with Families will help develop a warm and nourishing place for children.

UNIT I: STRUCTURE OF FAMILIES

Upon completion of this unit, the candidate should be able to:

1. know the characteristics of different family configurations:
single parent family, blended family, dual parent family,
foster family, and teen-age parent family.
2. know the characteristics of authoritarian, authoritative and
permissive parents.
3. plan several questions/activities with the custodial adult
which will elicit information about the parenting style of the
custodial adult.

4. know an overview of PET, STEP, and other parenting programs and be able to refer custodial adults to a program at their request.
5. understand the effect of different values on the life style and parenting styles of families.
6. identify own parenting style and values.

CDA SAMPLE CAREGIVER BEHAVIORS

- . . . recognizes that children's primary caregivers may be single mothers or fathers, both parents, stepparents, grandparents, uncles, aunts, sisters, brothers, foster parents, or guardians.
- . . . develops attachment toward children without competing with custodial adult(s).
- . . . respects and tries to understand the custodial adults' views when they differ from the providers goals or policies and attempts to resolve the differences.

CONTENT OUTLINE

- . . similarities and differences of different parenting programs for parents
- . . characteristics and implication for authoritarian, authoritative and permissive parenting styles.

- . . characteristics of the various family configurations such as dual parent family, single parent family, foster parent family, etc.
- . . the possible effects of the various family configurations on the custodial adult, the child and the interaction between custodial adult/child/candidate.

SUGGESTED TEACHING METHODS

- . . lecture and discussion
- . . time for self evaluation sheets for parenting styles
- . . time for self evaluation sheets for personal values
- . . review of workbooks provided for parents by different parenting programs

EVALUATION

1. Discuss personal parenting style and the possible effect on working with custodial adult/child with a different parenting style.
2. Determine ways to build on strengths and to assist in solving possible concerns for children in different family configurations.

RESOURCES FOR UNIT I

Berns, R. M., 1985. **Child, Family and Community.** New York, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, pp. 104-145.

Brooks, J. B. 1987. **The Process of Parenting.** Palo Alto, California, Mayfield Publishing Company. Chapter 12 Parenting/Working; Chapter 13 Single Parenting; Chapter 14 Stepparenting.

Dinkmeyer, D. and McKay, G. D., 1982. **The Parent's Handbook: STEP.** Circle Pines, Minnesota, American Guidance Service.

McCracken, J. B., ed. 1986. **Reducing Stress in Young Children's Lives.** Washington, D. C., National Association for the Education of Young Children. pp. 64-75; 116-121;

Zinn, M. B. and Fitzen, D. S., 1987. **Diversity in American Families.** New York, New York, Harper & Row. pp. 277-306.

UNIT II: COMMUNICATION WITH FAMILIES

A. THE INITIAL CONTACT WITH THE FAMILY

Upon completion of this unit, the candidate should be able to:

1. devise a written guide for use in the initial contact with the custodial adult or guardian of the children in her care.
2. plan a follow-up visit with the custodial adult/guardian of the child to informally evaluate the possibility of accepting the child.
3. plan an appropriate and comfortable method for communicating the responsibilities for the child which the candidate will assume and the responsibilities to be assumed by the child's family.
4. prepare a contract which clearly defines the duties and the responsibilities for the candidate and the family.
5. develop a questionnaire about the child for parents to complete to include information necessary for optimum care of the child.

CDA SAMPLE CAREGIVER BEHAVIORS:

- . . . establishes a clear understanding with each family on hours of child care, amount of fees and payment schedule, vacations, emergency procedures, etc.
- . . . observes strict confidentiality regarding children and families and makes parents aware of this policy.

CONTENT OUTLINE:

- . . Interview techniques for requests for child placement using the telephone and personal interview
- . . Design oral and written questionnaires for parents/ guardians
- . . Design and present a contract for families of children in candidate's care
- . . Written sheets for use with parents which define custodial adult responsibilities and candidate responsibilities for care of the child

SUGGESTED TEACHING METHODS:

- . . Practice interviewing custodial adult/guardian on first call
- . . Small group discussion/input

- . . Practice follow-up interview with custodial adult/guardian with other students
- . . Handouts/visual aids of sample questions, contracts, responsibility sheets, questionnaire about children
- . . Role playing the part of custodial adult/guardian in discussions about child
- . . Discuss in small groups and develop written plans for questions for new parents/guardians, and written guidelines for a contract

EVALUATION:

1. Develop and present a written set of questions to be used at a first interview.
2. Develop and present a written set of questions to be used at a follow-up home visit.
3. Develop a written contract between candidate and parents/guardians.
4. Develop a questionnaire for children and a sheet defining responsibilities of custodial adult and candidate for child care.

B. COMMUNICATION WITH FAMILIES ENROLLED IN THE DAY CARE PROVIDER PROGRAM

Upon completion of this unit, the candidate should be able to:

1. communicate orally with appropriate family members about the child's strengths, developmental progress, immediate successes, needs and concerns
2. devise a plan for written communication about the child which will reinforce oral communications.
3. encourage family members to discuss important family events, strengths and behaviors of the child at home.
4. develop methods for families in the Candidate's program to communicate with one another in order to form a social support group.

CDA SAMPLE CAREGIVER BEHAVIORS

- . . . exchanges information regularly with parents about the child's life at home and in the day care home, including routines and changes in care, favorite activities, etc.
- . . . encourages parents to talk about important family events and their children's special interests and behavior at home and shares information frequently with parents about the child's experience in the day care home.

- . . . encourages parents to visit the family day care home, participate in activities with their children, and make suggestions for the daily program.

CONTENT OUTLINE

- . . Use of checklists, certificates or other written form of communication for recognizing children's work
- . . Planning and writing a report/newsletter for parents at regular intervals
- . . Use of newsletters, bulletin boards, notebooks for exchanges of information/news from family to family
- . . Methods and time for visiting informally with parents about child
- . . Implementation of activities derived from information on child's special interests, needs, etc.
- . . Use of checksheets and observations as a communication tool for parents

SUGGESTED TEACHING METHODS

- . . Lecture/ discussion

- . . Practice communication with another student/friend using guidelines developed by students
- . . Produce a short report for parents
- . . Role play use of checksheets/observations with another student acting as the custodial adult
- . . Develop methods for appropriate and convenient communication from family to family

EVALUATION

1. Complete written report about program for parents.
2. Demonstrate a short discussion with a custodial adult at end of day.
3. Complete a checksheet/observations with comments for parents.
4. Produce a sample newsletter with news of interest to parents and inviting them to participate in sharing news.

C. CUSTODIAL ADULT/ CANDIDATE CONFERENCES

Upon completion of this unit, the candidate should be able to:

1. Define characteristics of a good custodial adult conference.

2. Develop an outline for conferences to evaluate the needs of an able child, a less able child and a child with special needs.
3. Work with custodial adults to use evaluations by custodial adult and candidate to develop a plan for continued optimal care of the child.
4. Plan a follow up communication with the custodial adult to determine the success of the plan or to revise it as needed.

CDA SAMPLE CAREGIVER BEHAVIORS

- . . . is able to discuss problem behavior with parents in a constructive, supportive manner.

CONTENT OUTLINE

- . . goals and characteristics of a good custodial adult conference
- . . methods of assessing continual needs of a child from observations and other assessments of the custodial adult and candidate
- . . ways of avoiding problems in successful conferences
- . . techniques of encouraging custodial adult input for conferences

SUGGESTED TEACHING METHODS

- . . lecture/discussion
- . . role play custodial adult role in conference
- . . time for practicing assessments
- . . time for practicing conferences

EVALUATION

1. Write an effective and useful assessment tool for candidate's use.
2. Write an outline for use in a custodial adult conference.

D. FINAL INTERVIEW WITH PARENTS - SAYING GOODBYE

Upon completion of this unit, the candidate should:

1. discuss any concerns which the custodial adult may have and offer possible solutions.
2. assist the custodial adult in finding a new day care situation for the child, if necessary.
3. discuss the positive aspects of the experience with the child and offer help in evaluating the new situation if necessary.

CDA SAMPLE CAREGIVER BEHAVIORS

- . . . supports parents in making arrangements for school or an alternative child care program when necessary.

CONTENT OUTLINE

- . . characteristics of a good day care situation with emphasis on family day care
- . . evaluation techniques for day care
- . . characteristics and parts of a final successful interview with parents
- . . list of appropriate day care alternatives to family day care and their strengths and weaknesses.

SUGGESTED TEACHING METHODS

- . . time to practice final interviews with other students
- . . lecture/discussion
- . . review characteristics of good day care for parents
- . . research and develop a list of local alternatives to a family day care situation

EVALUATION

1. Present a list of local alternatives to a family day care situation and the reasons for choosing them.
2. Develop an outline for a final interview with a custodial adult whose child is leaving because of unsuitability for the program.
3. Devise a method and write questions designed to assist the family in evaluating the candidate's services and care of the child.

RESOURCES FOR UNIT II

Alston, F. K. 1984. **Caring for Other People's Children: A Complete Guide to Family Day Care.** Baltimore, Maryland, University Park Press, pp. 31-44; 77-99.

Brown, J. F. ed., 1984. **Administering Programs for Young Children.** Washington, D. C. National Association for Young Children, pp. 150-156.

Berger, E. H., 1987. **Parents as Partners in Education.** Columbus, Ohio, Merrill Publishing Company, pp. 97-137.

Maxim, G. W. 1985. **The Very Young.** Belmont, California, Wadsworth, Inc. pp. 95-104.

McCracken, J. B., ed. 1986. **Reducing Stress in Young Children's Lives.** Washington, D. C., National Association for the Education of Young Children. pp. 30-33.

UNIT III: FAMILIES AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT

A. DEVELOPMENTAL MILESTONES

Upon completion of this unit, the candidate should be able to:

1. communicate orally with appropriate family members about the child's developmental progress, strengths, immediate successes and needs.
2. devise a plan for written communication if necessary about the developmental progress of the child which will reinforce oral communication.
3. encourage family members to discuss important family events which contribute to the child's development and self-esteem.
4. encourage discussion with family members about the child's developmental milestones which are observed at home.
5. know developmental steps which indicate readiness for school and discuss these with the family.

CDA SAMPLE CAREGIVER BEHAVIORS

- . . . helps families understand the importance of play for children.
- . . . sends home projects made by the children

- . . . works with parents to prepare children for entering school
- . . . tells family about children's achievements and shares their pleasure in new abilities

CONTENT OUTLINE

- . . Appropriate activities for children of differing ages
- . . Developmental checklists and characteristics for children
- . . Extending appropriate activities for children of various ages at home
- . . Informal evaluation methods of child's readiness for school
- . . School entry expectations of a school age child

SUGGESTED TEACHING METHODS

- . . Use of observation methods/checklists to evaluate children
- . . Lecture/discussion
- . . Participate in making appropriate games, activities and other projects suitable for children of different ages.

EVALUATION

1. Informally evaluate the developmental age of a child who is in the candidate's care.

2. List important developmental milestones for a child who will start formal schooling.

B. SEPARATION OF PRIMARY CARETAKER AND CHILD

Upon completion of this unit, the candidate should be able to:

1. suggest ways in which the stress of separation of the primary caregiver and a child at various developmental ages can be managed.
2. encourage parents to allow children to behave inappropriately during times when the child is experiencing separation anxiety.
3. encourage parents to visit whenever possible and to establish a regular routine if possible for leaving and picking up child.
4. discuss concerns of child about meeting strangers and agree upon a plan for discussing *dangerous stranger* concerns, if appropriate.

CDA SAMPLE CAREGIVER BEHAVIORS

- . . . helps parents with separations from child, recognizing parents' possible concerns about leaving their child.

- . . . recognizes the recurring stress of separation for infants and toddlers for child and parents and attempts to ease it for them.
- . . . encourages families to visit the family day care home, participate in activities with their children, and make suggestions for the daily program.

CONTENT OUTLINE

- . . strategies for helping parents understand behavior to be expected of children of different ages who encounter separation for the first time
- . . ways to help parents understand behavior to be expected of children who have been in long-term care, including behaviors both satisfactory and unsatisfactory to the custodial adult.
- . . characteristics of informing/educating children jointly with parents about various "dangerous stranger" types and activities for educating both families and children
- . . ways of planning for school visits for parents and establishing mutual goals for these visits

SUGGESTED TEACHING METHODS

- . . Role play parents leaving child
- . . Speaker from police force
- . . Lecture/discussion
- . . Panel presentation by experienced parents and providers

EVALUATION

1. Complete a handout for families discussing candidate's policy for separation process.
2. Compile a list of important strategies for safety with children to share with families.

C. FAMILIES AND INFANTS

Upon completion of this unit, the candidate should be able to:

1. provide families with appropriate information on the development and needs of infants, including routine care and special developmental milestones of infants.
2. assist families in planning for the infant at home in ways which will provide mutual support for optimum development of the infant when in the candidate's care.

3. reinforce the care provided for the infant at home by obtaining information from the custodial adult and using it in plans for the infant's care.
4. provide suggestions for families to observe their child at home and share the results with the candidate.

CDA SAMPLE CAREGIVER BEHAVIORS

- . . . supports families in becoming involved observers of their infant and young child.
- . . . responds with interest to concerns of families about sleep, waking, feeding, or particulars relating to the needs of infants and young toddlers.
- . . . makes suggestions to families about how to stimulate infants' vision, touch, and hearing at home.
- . . . Shares family's desire to understand meaning of baby's cries and to respond sensitively.

CONTENT OUTLINE

- . . growth and development of infants
- . . methods of stimulating infants' senses

- . . special care and safety of infants and ways to communicate this to families
- . . special developmental concerns of interest to families such as feeding, sleeping, weaning, pacifiers, etc.

SUGGESTED TEACHING METHODS

- . . lecture/discussion
- . . speaker from public health service on special health and safety requirements of infants
- . . demonstration of infant activities and methods for instructing families about infant care
- . . speaker on special needs of optimum infant development

EVALUATION

1. Develop a handout for parents on milestones in infant growth and development.
2. Demonstrate safety procedures to be used with infants.
3. Write health and safety requirements for working with infants in a family day care.
4. Develop a handout for families with activities appropriate for families and infants.

D. FAMILIES AND TODDLERS

Upon completion of this unit, the candidate should be able to:

1. provide families with information about the developmental importance of the growing independence of the toddler and behaviors which develop as a result.
2. discuss with parents the toddler's behavior and plan possible ways for parent and caregiver to handle this behavior together.
3. explain importance of various kinds of play to families and ways in which the candidate is using these types of play.
4. plan and, if necessary, revise appropriate ways for implementing toilet training of the toddler and communicate success/ concerns to the parent.
5. provide activities for the toddler which reinforce the child's need to belong to her/his family, using parents as resources.

CDA SAMPLE CAREGIVER BEHAVIORS

- . . . helps families find ways to enjoy time with their toddlers and to help toddlers relax after time in group setting
- . . . coordinates toilet learning plans with custodial adult and frequently communicates on child's progress

- . . . discusses with families the reasons for toddlers' emotional outbursts and negative behaviors and possible ways of handling them
- . . . discusses child's rituals and routines with families
- . . . sends home projects made by the children

CONTENT OUTLINE

- . . developmental milestones for toddlers
- . . appropriate activities to support the toddler need for both active and quiet play
- . . special developmental behaviors of toddlers such as tantrums, negative behavior, rituals, routines, dramatic play and beginning peer conflict and strategies to handle them.
- . . development of physical, emotional and social requirements for toilet training
- . . importance of play and ways to inform families of this importance
- . . ways to provide a sense of continuity between the family, the child and the candidate and to work with the family to implement this sense of belonging for the toddler.

SUGGESTED TEACHING METHODS

- . . lecture/discussion
- . . written sheets for developmental stages of toddlers
- . . panel discussion with members of families with various configurations for suggestions to implement sense of belonging to the family
- . . brainstorming various appropriate play ideas for toddlers for day care/home sharing
- . . research various toilet training methods and compile results

EVALUATION

1. Write a paper stating candidate's ideas and values on toilet training to be offered to families of toddlers.
2. Compile a sheet of activities which can be done by the toddler at day care and implemented at home by the custodial adult.
3. Devise several activities which can be used by the custodial adult and candidate to help the child feel related to the family while at day care.

RESOURCES FOR UNIT III

Alston, F. K. 1984. **Caring for Other People's Children: A Complete Guide to Family Day Care.** Baltimore, Maryland, University Park Press. Chapter 9, Providing for Infants, Chapter 10, Providing for Toddlers and Chapter 13, Providing School Readiness

Bredekamp, S. ed., 1986. **Developmentally Appropriate Practice.** Washington, D. C. National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Brooks, J. B. 1987. **The Process of Parenting.** Palo Alto, California, Mayfield Publishing Company. This book has excellent sections for the Candidate to use with parents on infants, toddlers, separation, toilet training and developmental milestones

Maxim, G. W. 1985. **The Very Young.** Belmont, California, Wadsworth, Inc. pp. 73-93.

Salkind, N. J. and S. R. Ambron. 1987. **Child Development.** New York, New York, CBS College Publishing. An easily read book on child development from birth through adolescence.

Filmstrip: **Understanding Early Childhood--Ages 1 through 6,** Parents Magazine Filmstrips.

Videotapes: Lubchenco, A. 1981. **Spoonful of Lovin': A Manual for Day Care Providers.** Denver, CO, Mile High Child Care Association.

A comprehensive resource guide for individual day care providers at home; also a video series of five, 30 minutes programs is available. The manual and video series can be used together or independently. The programs are shown frequently on public TV stations.

UNIT IV: FAMILIES AND CULTURES

A. FAMILIES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF CULTURES

Upon completion of this unit, the candidate should be able to:

1. define the characteristics of cultures of the families of the children in their care, including religious customs and holidays, parenting styles, kinship relationships, learning styles of children and special family/cultural events which affect the child.
2. encourage the child's pride in his/her culture by planning activities that feature special characteristic rituals and celebrations.
3. encourage family members to share different aspects of their culture, including the culture of the past, with the children when possible.

CDA SAMPLE CAREGIVER BEHAVIORS

- . . . respects each family's cultural background, religious beliefs, and childrearing practices
- . . . shares information with parents about a child's special interests and encourages parents to bring books, toys, photographs, or food that the child might like to share with the group

CONTENT OUTLINE

- . . similarities and differences of cultures of families served by the candidate
- . . ways of obtaining information from parents about values, important cultural rituals and practices including practices which may be found discriminatory
- . . ways of sharing activities and important events with all families of children in candidate's care

SUGGESTED TEACHING METHODS

- . . panel of persons from different cultures discussing important similarities and differences
- . . compilation of resources for teaching ideas and teaching supplies for different ethnic and religious cultures
- . . lecture/discussion on extended families and other important family configurations for the child
- . . ways to involve parents in providing information and support for the child and her/his cultural heritage

EVALUATION

1. Plan two family activities which will involve families and their culture.
2. Compile a list of resources for implementing cultural activities for the children in the candidate's care.

B. FAMILIES AND CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

Upon completion of this unit, the candidate should be able to:

1. provide written documentation for custodial adult to support evidence of special need(s), if necessary.
2. work with parents and health professionals to provide special diets, behavior management and activities for a child with special needs as far as possible.
3. discuss with custodial adult any special equipment, food or other physical requirements of the child and plan in writing who will be responsible for these physical requirements.
4. communicate with custodial adult the results of visits with the child to doctors, special school personnel or other professional persons who are involved in the care of the child and plan jointly to implement recommendations from these visits.

5. have a referral reference available for use by the custodial adult and assist the custodial adult in an advocacy role if needed.
6. understand the purpose and role of Individual Education Programs (IEP) as developed by educational institutions and assist in implementing the goals when possible.

CDA SAMPLE CAREGIVER BEHAVIORS

- . . . helps parents obtain clear and understandable information about their child's handicaps and information about the family's legal right to services.
- . . . encourages and assists parents to communicate confidently about their child with government and other community agencies.
- . . . helps parents recognize their feelings and attitudes about handicaps
- . . . supports children and families under stress, working cooperatively with other professionals, as appropriate

CONTENT OUTLINE

- . . Resources available in the community and how to refer parents

- . . Sample IEP's and their implementation
- . . Conferencing with professional persons who may be involved in caring for the child.
- . . Observing and other record keeping on child's behavior which may be requested by professional persons.

SUGGESTED TEACHING METHODS

- . . Speaker from a school to discuss IEP's and other concerns of school personnel regarding special children
- . . Survey different methods of observing children and practice observations, using a videotape.
- . . Practice conferencing with another student or teacher, if time permits, in role of professional
- . . Research community resources as a group project.

EVALUATION

1. Written observation of a child with special needs, with notes for families.
2. A compilation of the community resource project.

RESOURCES FOR UNIT IV

Berns, R. M., 1985. **Child, Family and Community.** New York, New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Brooks, J. B. 1987. **The Process of Parenting.** Palo Alto, California, Mayfield Publishing Company.

McCracken, J. B., ed. 1986. **Reducing Stress in Young Children's Lives.** Washington, D. C., National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Saracho, O. N. and B. Spodek, ed. 1983. **Understanding the Multicultural Experience in Early Childhood Education.** Washington, D. C., National Association for the Education of Young Children.

Schmidt, V. E. and Earldene McNeil, 1978. **Cultural Awareness A Resource Bibliography.** Washington, D. C. Association for the Education of Young Children.

Zinn, M. B. and D. S. Fitzen. 1987. **Diversity in American Families.** New York, New York, Harper & Row.

APPENDIX A: STRUCTURE OF FAMILIES _____

COMPETENCY GOAL IV

To establish positive and productive relationships with families

FUNCTIONAL AREA; FAMILIES

Candidate maintains an open, friendly, and cooperative relationship with each child's family, encourages their involvement in the program, and supports the child's relationship with his or her family.

DEVELOPMENTAL CONTEXT

Today's families take many different forms. Each family has primary responsibility for its children with others. The parents and the caregiver become partners who communicate respectfully and openly for the mutual benefit of the children, the family and the caregiver. Caregivers also recognize that parenthood, too, is a developmental process and that they can support parents in their role.

Young Infants (birth-9 months) are establishing patterns of sleeping, waking, eating, playing, and social activity. They can be supported in developing some stability in these routines by the sensitive and consistent responses of adults. Parents and caregivers can respond more appropriately to the infant's signals when they share details with each other about the baby's day - sleeping, eating, diapering, activities, and moods.

Mobile Infants (6-18 months) may have difficulty separating from the parents even when the caregiver is a familiar and trusted person. Caregivers and parents need to discuss ways of handling this, recognizing that it may be upsetting both for the adults and the child. Caregivers should recognize the potential for competition between themselves and parents and work to avoid it. Caregivers and parents also need to agree on reasonable and safe limits as children begin to explore and wander.

Toddlers (16-36 months) develop their own special routines and rituals in order to feel more organized and secure. It is essential that parents and caregivers share common understanding of the child's patterns and provide constant dependable support for the toddler's growth toward self-determination.

Preschool Children (3 through 5 years) move back and forth from family to the child care program more independently than younger children. They are also more sensitive to the differences between the two environments and observe interactions between their parents and caregivers carefully. Parents and caregivers should keep each other informed of important developments in the children's lives and

provide mutual support in nurturing their physical, social, emotional and intellectual growth.

For example, the competent Candidate working with infants, toddlers and preschool children:

- * recognizes that children's primary caregivers may be single mothers or fathers, both parents, stepparents, grandparents, uncles, aunts, sisters, brothers, foster parents, or guardians.
- * establishes a clear understanding with each family on hours of child care, amount of fees and payment schedule, vacations, emergency procedures, etc.
- * respects each family's cultural background, religious beliefs, and childrearing practices.
- * observes strict confidentiality regarding children and families and makes parents aware of this policy.
- * suggests activities and materials that parents can share with their children at home.
- * encourages parents to talk about important family events and their children's special interests and behavior at home and shares information frequently with parents about the child's experiences in the day care home.
- * is able to discuss problem behavior with parents in a constructive, supportive manner.
- * supports parents in making arrangements for school or an alternative child care program when necessary.
- * develops attachment toward children without competing with parents.
- * encourages parents to visit the family day care home, participate in activities with their children, and make suggestions for the daily program.
- * respects and tries to understand the parents' views when they differ from the provider's goals or policies and attempts to resolve the differences.
- * tells parents about children's achievements and shares their pleasure in new abilities.
- * helps parents with separations from child, recognizing parents' possible concerns about leaving their child.

- * supports children and families under stress, working cooperatively with other professionals, as appropriate.
- * helps parents recognize their feelings and attitudes about handicaps.
- * helps parents identify resources to diagnose and treat children with handicaps.
- * helps parents obtain clear and understandable information about their children's handicaps and information about the family's legal right to services.
- * encourages and assists parents to communicate confidently about their children with government and other community agencies.

The competent Candidate working with young infants also, for example:

- * supports parents in becoming involved observers of their infant.
- * exchanges information regularly with parents about the child's life at home and in the day care home, including routines and changes in care, favorite activities, etc.
- * responds with interest to concerns of parents about sleep, waking, feeding, or particulars relating to infant's needs and development.
- * shares parents' desire to understand meaning of baby's cries and to respond sensitively.
- * makes suggestions to parents about how to stimulate infants' vision, touch, and hearing at home.

The competent Candidate working with mobile infants also, for example:

- * recognizes the recurring stress of separation for child and parents and attempts to ease it for them.
- * helps parents understand child's possible fear of strangers.
- * helps parents to provide safe home environment for mobile infant.
- * talks with parents of mobile infants about the beginning of independence and the child's use of the word "no."
- * decides with parents what limits to set.

- * suggests use of household items to provide a stimulating environment and to encourage the curiosity of mobile infants.

The competent Candidate working with toddlers also, for example:

- * discusses child's rituals and routines with parents.
- * discusses with parents the reasons for toddlers' emotional outbursts and negative behaviors and possible ways of handling them.
- * explains the toddler's pride and interest in imitating adults and learning to use tools to make things.
- * sends home projects made by the children.
- * helps parents find ways to enjoy time with their toddlers and to help toddlers relax after time in group setting.
- * coordinates toilet learning plans with parents and frequently communicates on child's progress.
- * supports toddler's sense of belonging to his/her family.

The competent Candidate working with preschool children also, for example:

- * helps parents understand the importance of play for preschool children.
- * shares information with parents about the learning opportunities for children in everyday household tasks and routines.
- * works with parents to prepare children for entering school.
- * shares information with parents about a child's special interests and encourages parents to bring books, toys, photographs, or food that the child might like to share with the group.

In addition, the competent Candidate working towards a bilingual specialization, for example:

- * regularly communicates orally and in writing with parents and children in their preferred language.
- * helps parents understand the program goals for bilingual development
- * knows parents' views on such issues as the use of first and second languages within the program, childrearing, and biculturalism and incorporates their views into program planning.

- * regularly communicates with parents about child's bilingual development and helps them find ways to support this within the family.
- * supports families' desire to communicate their language and cultural heritage to their children through cultural practices.

Taken from:

The Child Development Association
National Credentialing Program
CDA Assessment System
and
Competency Standards
for
Family Day Care Providers
1718 Connecticut Avenue NW
Washington, DC 20009
Phone: 1-800-424-4310

April 1985

APPENDIX B: COMMUNICATION WITH FAMILIES _____

CHOOSING CHILD CARE

STEPS TO CHOOSING CHILD CARE

1. Learn about the different kinds of child care and what makes quality caregiving.
2. List the things you feel are important for your child and you.
3. Collect names of potential child care providers.
4. Screen several on the phone by asking about:
 - . . Openings for your age child
 - . . Hours of operation, vacation coverage
 - . . Fees and, if needed, any subsidies that might be available
 - . . Location; transportation
 - . . State license and insurance coverage
 - . . Meals and snacks
 - . . Their ability to work with your child's special needs
 - . . Other things that are important to you

If it sounds like they meet your basic requirements, you may wish to ask a few questions about the type and quality of care offered.

5. Make appointments to visit three or more sites. It's important to check them out in person. You can't rely on hearsay or phone conversations alone.
6. Be sure to ask all of your questions during the visits and use the checklist to evaluate the sites.
7. Check references on your final choice by talking to parents with children in the program and calling the local office of the Washington State Department of Social and Health Services to find out if there have been complaints or actions taken.
8. Take your child to visit the final choice(s). If possible, let your child help make the final decision.
9. Trust your intuition and observations. No setting is perfect, and you'll need to figure out which compromises you're willing to make.

10. Read the caregiver's parent handbook or their written policies and procedures carefully. Be sure to sign a contract or agreement form with the caregiver, and make your mutual expectations clear, including the fee structure, holidays, vacations and refunds.
11. Establish substitute caregivers in case your child is ill, or your provider goes on vacation or is closed.

Changes in caregivers are hard on children, so it's a good idea to make your decision and give it a fair trial period. It's far better to do a careful job of choosing child care in the first place. But, if you or your child are unhappy with the arrangement, change to a new site using the steps above. Unless the situation is critical, give your caregiver at least two weeks' notice of your intent to remove your child from their program.

DEFINING QUALITY CARE

The Choosing Child Care Checklist is designed to help you make informed decisions about the child care programs you visit. Here's how to make it work for you:

1. Read it over carefully before you go to each program so that you are familiar with the questions.
2. Change any questions that don't fit your family, and add new ones that you want to be sure to ask.
3. Be sure to take the checklist with you to the site and get all of your questions answered by the caregiver or by your own observations.

Good quality child care can be described as programs that have:

- . . Caregivers who build children's self-esteem through warm, loving guidance, and who have training and experience in early childhood education.
- . . A safe, comfortable and healthy setting.
- . . Small child-to-staff ratios and group sizes.
- . . Planned activities and environments that help children grow and learn mentally, physically, emotionally and socially.

The most important aspect is, of course, the caregiver. The personality, skills, training and child-caring philosophies of the people caring for your child are the major determinants of the kinds of experiences s/he will have each day.

CHOOSING CHILD CARE CHECK LIST

What will my child do all day?

Are there enough materials? Are they varied and within my child's reach?

Do the children in the program seem happy and relaxed?

Are there daily planned activities?

Will T.V. watching be limited?

Are there special activities geared to the needs of school-aged children?

Are there indoor and outdoor activities?

Are there field trips?

Will my child have fun?

Are quiet and active play planned?

Is the environment appealing and comfortable?

Are the toys age-appropriate and within reach of children?

How will you protect my child's safety?

Are there enough caregivers to give attention to all the children in care?

Are the toys and equipment safe and in good repair?

Is there a staff person present at all times who knows CPR and first aid?

Does the caregiver have accident and liability insurance?

Are there emergency procedures?

Are fire drills held monthly?

Is the outdoor play area safe and fenced, where needed?

Are there enough clear exits?

Have the caregivers had character reference checks?

Do I feel secure with the person(s) who will be caring for my child?

If my child is school-age, is there a plan for getting him/her to and from school safely?

How will you promote my child's health?

Are there guidelines regarding illness?

Is there space to isolate sick children?

Are all areas clean?

Are efforts made to limit illnesses from spreading?

Do caregivers wash hands after diaper changes, blowing noses and before food handling?

Are there health, nutrition and personal safety education programs?

Are medications handled in a safe way?

Are diapers changed often enough?

Are nap times and space planned?

Are arrangements made for those who don't wish a nap?

Are vehicles safe, insured, with seat belts?

What will you discipline for, and how will you do it?

Are limits reasonable, clear, and consistent?

Are hitting, biting and bullying dealt with appropriately?

Are teasing, shaming, scolding and shouting avoided?

Is positive reinforcement used?

Do the discipline policies match mine?

Do they avoid use of spanking or physical punishment?

What will you feed my child and when?

Is there a weekly menu plan posted?

Is food balanced, varied and nutritious?

Are snacks nutritious and low in sugar?

Are children's food choices and appetites respected?

What will you do to help my child feel good about him/herself?

Does the caregiver smile, look at and talk with individual children?

Does the caregiver listen to individual children?

Is the caregiver warm and relaxed with a sense of humor?

Will my family's cultural values be respected?

Do caregivers focus on the positive behavior?

Does the caregiver encourage creativity and independence?

Do caregivers hold and rock infants and toddlers often?

Will the same people take care of my child each day?

How will the caregivers be supported?

Are training and education offered?

Are there sufficient substitutes on call?

Do caregivers take good care of themselves?

Will you involve and support me as a parent?

Am I free to visit at any time?

Are there parent conferences, meetings or workshops?

Is there a way for me to know what's happening on a regular basis?

Is there a written statement of policy and philosophy?

Other things to Check Out

1. Ask to see the State License.
2. Find out what kind of accident and liability insurance the program has.

3. Ask for the names and phone numbers of three parents in the program that you can call as references.
4. If it's a *Child Care Center*, ask if they have been or are in the process of being voluntarily accredited by the National Association for Young Children.
5. Ask how they prevent unauthorized persons from picking up children.

Taken from: **Choosing Child Care: A Consumer Guide for Parents**

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FORCED CHOICE VALUES TESTS: Forced choice values tests are not to be considered tests with right or wrong answers. Nor are they intended to tell students what they should think is important. They are not for research or counseling purposes. These tests are simply a means to help students identify and understand their own values. Adapted from instrument used by Doris Dyer in Master's Thesis in Management at M.S.U.

DIRECTIONS--Circle one of the two choices in each category.

1 - to be reasonably sure about the future for myself and my family

12 - to do things well

3 - to have people think well of me

5 - to have as much freedom as possible to do the things I want to do

11 - to have as many good things as possible

12 - to do things well

6 - to do new and different things often

11 - to have as many good things as possible

7 - to have friends

10 - to have things neat, orderly, and organized

6 - to do new and different things often

8 - to arrange for a family atmosphere that makes for satisfying family living

3 - to have people think well of me

9 - to do what is right according to my beliefs

8 - to arrange for a family atmosphere that makes for satisfying family living

10 - to have things neat, orderly, and organized

4 - to do things for my family and others

11 - to have as many good things as possible

10 - to have things neat, orderly and organized

12 - to do things well

2 - to have influence with people

12 - to do things well

4 - to do things for my family and others

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Count the number of times each number in the test is circled. Rank all the statements from one to twelve beginning with the statement selected the greatest number of times. After statements have been ranked, use the key to identify values represented.

No. of times
circled

Rank

- | | | | |
|-------------|-----|--|-------|
| ____. ____. | 1. | To be reasonably sure about the future for myself and my family | _____ |
| ____. ____. | 2. | To have influence with people | _____ |
| ____. ____. | 3. | To have people think well of me | _____ |
| ____. ____. | 4. | To do things for my family and others | _____ |
| ____. ____. | 5. | To have as much freedom as possible to do the things I want to do . . . | _____ |
| ____. ____. | 6. | To do new and different things often. | _____ |
| ____. ____. | 7. | To have friends | _____ |
| ____. ____. | 8. | To arrange for a family atmosphere that makes for satisfying family living | _____ |
| ____. ____. | 9. | To do what is right according to my beliefs | _____ |
| ____. ____. | 10. | To have things neat, orderly, and organized | _____ |
| ____. ____. | 11. | To have as many good things as possible | _____ |
| ____. ____. | 12. | To do things well | _____ |

KEY:	1. Security	4. Helpfulness	7. Friendship	10. Orderliness
	2. Influence	5. Freedom	8. Family Life	11. Wealth
	3. Recognition	6. New Experiences	9. Religion	12. Workmanship

State of Washington
Coordinating Council for Occupational Education

APPENDIX C: FAMILIES AND CHILD DEVELOPMENT _____

DEVELOPMENTAL STAGESBirth to 12 Months

A newborn infant is totally dependent on others for survival.

Adequate care, plus attention, enables the infant to learn to trust and to perceive the world as safe. Trust provides a foundation for healthy development.

THE INFANT:

- ...lives only in the present.
- ...does not yet realize he is a separate, individual human being.
- ...is driven by needs--hunger, comfort, safety.
- ...needs attention and praise.
- ...may be frightened by strangers and unusual sounds.
- ...develops physically from a helpless baby to an active, erect, mobile person in a short time.
- ...begins to communicate through language.
- ...learns through the senses: mouths objects, gazes and stares at objects, alert to sounds--makes sounds, smells (does not object to odors), touches/feels/drops/spills.

In addition to basic care, to stimulate development, caretakers need to provide experiences in the sensory domain:

- ...change crib views often (hang bright and moving items safely out of reach).
- ...allow exploring for crawler, putting treasures away and safety-proofing room.
- ...touching, turning knobs, dumping, spilling, dropping are natural ways of learning--the baby is not misbehaving but learning through experimentation.
- ...reserve "no-no" for times when it is necessary. Tell child what to do instead of using "don't" and "no" constantly.
- ...**PRAISE BUILDS WANTED BEHAVIOR--PUNISHMENT RETARDS DEVELOPMENT.**

Twelve to 24 Months

The early toddler can now move about and resembles a "little professor" or explorer as curiosity abounds. Now is the time to structure and safety-proof the environment to accommodate and nurture the striving for learning and independence that are so natural. The child needs as much freedom as possible, within limits that are necessary for safety--block off an area. They are self centered and cannot put themselves in another's place.

TODDLERS NEED OPPORTUNITIES TO:

- ...explore, indoors and outdoors.
- ...handle various textures, tools and objects.
- ...make choices when possible.
- ...have objects identified by adult's labels, "that's a spool," etc.

TODDLERS:

- ...play alone or next to another child.
- ...do not understand the concept of sharing.
- ...may grab from other children.
- ...may push, pull hair or bite other child, not a hostile act--usually an attempt to communicate. They lack verbal skills and are often frustrated.

Toddlers live in the present. "Now" is their reality. Older toddlers are just beginning to understand that if an object or person is out of sight it still exists. From around 18 months language is developing rapidly enabling better communication of feelings.

Toddlers are often negative. "No, me do it" is a natural outcry. Discovering the satisfaction of independence/testing limits is necessary. They need to learn what is appropriate behavior. Adults can assist by patiently telling the child what can be done. By the time a child reaches its 2nd birthday, the foundation of skills to serve learning throughout a lifetime will have been acquired. **DURING THIS PERIOD, THE CHILD GAINS A FEELING OF EITHER FAILURE AND DOUBT OR SUCCESS, INDEPENDENCE AND CONFIDENCE. CARING ADULTS CAN MAKE THE DIFFERENCE.**

Two to 3 Years Old

The acquisition of language gives a new dimension to the child's world. Now able to give expression to more thoughts and needs, the frustration level of the past begins to diminish although may flare up occasionally.

The child climbs with greater skill, can throw, run, climb stairs, etc. S/he is still possessive but may share sometimes, however should not be forced to do so.

Cooperative play is beginning but solitary or parallel play still occurs.

The 2 to 3 year old helps with his own clothing, likes songs, books, puzzles and anything repetitive. He also has his favorites.

Trying hard to please adults along with following simple directions is characteristic of this age group.

Attention span is growing but expectations should be realistic. Prolonged sitting is physically impossible. Three to five minutes is realistic.

Healthy self-esteem enables the child to progress in growth toward independence. Adults can help by reinforcing child's effort with simple praise. "You try hard," "you work well," a smile or a shoulder pat fosters learning. Too many failures cause children to stop trying. Dependence can become the life style script. Minimize failures--mistakes are all right, we all make them and learn from them.

Patience pays dividends...for everyone.

CHILDREN DEVELOP AND LEARN IN SMALL STEPS. THEY NEED ADULTS TO LEAD THEM.

Bugs, dogs, noises and imaginary sources produce increased fears as intelligence expands. These fears peak in the age from 2 to 3 years then diminish gradually as greater understanding develops and with reassurance from caring adults.

DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES---AGES 3 THROUGH 5

The Three year old...

is at an age of equilibrium.
seems pleased with him or herself and those about him or her.
is anxious to do the approved thing.
loves to conform.
laughs frequently and easily in all his/her play.
usually responds to direction and reason.
likes to make friends. People are important.
has a strong need for companionship.
"We" is a word frequently used. It expresses the cooperative
easy going attitude toward life in general.
is beginning to take turns and enjoy cooperative play--though parallel
play still exists.
loves repetition--the same stories over and over..
feels secure within him or herself in relation to others.
shares sometimes--wants choice in doing so.

The Three and one-half year old...

is approaching a period of marked insecurity--disequilibrium.
is incoordinated in all areas--physically and verbal.
may begin stuttering.
expresses emotional insecurity by whining and crying.
is extremely demanding with adults--"don't look" "don't talk" "don't laugh"
may demand that all attention be focused on him or herself, and thus
becomes extremely jealous of any attention paid by family members
to each other.
shows considerable insecurity with friends and often demands their
exclusive attention.
Expresses emotional extremes (very shy one minute--overboisterous the next)

(If you, the adult, know in advance that all this uncertainty, insecurity,
incoordination quite normally mark the Three and one-half age period, it can help
considerably. It can keep you from blaming various aspects of the environment for
any or all of the incoordination, and can help give you patience to show the child
the extra affection, the extra understanding which he so desperately needs at this
age.)

The Four year old...

is at an age of disequilibrium.
is unstable and explosive.
is out of bounds in almost every direction.
is out of bounds physically--is aggressive--hits, runs, kicks, breaks
things. Is so active that he/she can't sit still and may get up from
the table two or three times during a meal. Jumps, hops about continuously.
is out of bounds emotionally--loud silly laughter alternates with fits of
rage. Is proud of mother one minute, threatens her the next. May be
jealous, quarrelsome and bossy. May have many fears of the dark, of mother
and father leaving...

Crys and whines alot. Tensional outlets heightened--blinking, biting nails.

is out of bounds in interpersonal relationships. Is quite a showoff and boasts and brags at every opportunity.

Loves to defy parental commands, in fact seems to be as defiant as he or she can possibly be. Even severe punishment will have little effect.

is out of bounds in imagination--tells tall tales--thin line between fact and fiction.

is interested more in children than in adults
still can't share.

(In coping, you will need to use firmness in dealing with your four year old, but will feel less helpless if you realize that this behavior is not only inevitable but a necessary part of development. Needs to be allowed to test him/herself out.)

The Four and one-half year old...

is beginning to pull out

is a little more self-motivated--starts a job and stays on the track much better than at four and with less need of adult control.

is a great discussor.

is improving control and perfecting skill in many ways. Play is less wild than at four.

is better able to accept frustration.

The Five year old...

is at an age of extreme and delightful equilibrium.

tends to be reliable, stable, well adjusted.

is calm, friendly and not too demanding.

thinks mother is the center of his world and likes to be near her.

sometimes finds it hard to share mother

likes to do things for her, likes to obey her commands.

likes to be instructed and get permission.

talks constantly.

is pretty satisfied with him or herself.

Engaging Parents in Solving Problems: A Strategy for Enhancing Self-Esteem

by Nancy Johns and Cathie Harvey

Mr. G has been a widower for almost two years. His three and a half year old son, Terry, has been enrolled at the child care center since his first birthday, just before his mother's death. After the initial adjustment, two and a half years before, Terry and Mr. G have had no problem separating. However, for the past several weeks, Terry has appeared unwilling to let his father leave in the morning, and their good-bye ritual has been getting longer and longer.

One morning Terry was especially upset. Mr. G stayed with Terry for quite a long time, but whenever he tried to leave, Terry cried and clung to his leg. As this situation progressed, Ms. R, Terry's teacher, overheard a conversation between Terry and his father. Mr. G was obviously upset and seemed unsure about how to respond to Terry. Ms. R could have responded in a number of ways. Let us consider two possibilities:

Response A. Ms. R decided to intervene. She walked over, took Terry firmly in hand, and, in a calm voice, told him that it was now time for his daddy to go to work and that she was eager for him to join the group. As she led the weeping child away, she looked back and commented to Mr. G that many children had difficulty with separation and that often the only thing that helps is a clear message and a brief good-bye.

Response B. Ms. R decided to observe the interaction. Eventually Mr. G left. He was upset and late for work. Terry was still

crying. When Mr. G came to pick Terry up, Ms. R mentioned that Terry's difficulty with leaving his dad seemed to be getting more intense. She asked Mr. G if he had a few moments to meet with her and think about how to respond to Terry's problem with separation.

When a child has a problem, child care staff can impose a solution, as in Response A, or they can involve the parent in solving the problem, as in Response B. There are advantages and disadvantages in both approaches.

There are a number of reasons why child care staff might choose to impose a solution. One is to relieve the parent of his/her responsibility for the problem. This is often seen as a service to the parent who is overwhelmed or who does not seem to know what to do.

Another advantage of Response A is that the problem is resolved quickly for Terry, Mr. G, and Ms. R. Some staff may consider problems such as separation to be routine and, therefore, may feel that they should not require the investment of time and energy usually reserved for special needs. And, finally, many staff feel—as Ms. R feels—that the solution imposed is the best one for the child.

Engaging parents in a constructive process for solving problems requires time and energy. It does, however, provide several important advantages. It can assist parents in their own development and can enhance their sense of self-worth. It can provide them with a positive model for interaction with their own children. And it can lay the groundwork for addressing other issues that may arise during the child's stay at the center.

The experiences of child care staff, as well as the research done with parents of young children, consistently confirm the importance of self-esteem. Self-esteem is one of the critical factors in a parent's ability to respond to the needs of his/her child. It also influences how well a parent can cooperate as a partner with child care staff in the care of his/her child. Therefore, using responses to routine problems as a vehicle for enhancing a parent's self-esteem can be an important service to a family and, in turn, can help the child care program.

In this article we will describe a six-step process that can guide staff in their work with parents in solving problems:

1. Identify the problem.
2. Identify options for responding.
3. Discuss the options.
4. Choose an option.
5. Agree on a plan to evaluate.
6. Evaluate the option.

1. Identify the Problem

Often the most difficult part of the process of solving problems is getting agreement on the fact that a problem exists, what the problem is, and who owns the problem. Occasionally staff see a situation or behavior as problematic and the parent does not. Conversely, parents sometime present a situation or behavior as problematic and the staff do not see a cause for concern. The differences between parents caring for children in their own homes and professional staff caring for children in groups further complicate how parents and

staff perceive any given situation.

In our example Ms. R and Mr. G both realize that there is a problem and both are being affected by it—although in different ways. Ms. R would like Terry and his father to say good-bye and separate with a minimum of disruption in the room. Mr. G has a serious problem each time he is late for work. He is also worried that Terry may have a legitimate reason for not wanting to be at the child care center and that maybe he is making a mistake in *forcing* Terry to be there. He feels guilty that he has no other option.

A good place to begin the initial step of problem identification is to clarify the areas of mutual agreement. Ms. R has begun this process by observing that Terry is not finding a way to resolve the difficulty he is having in the mornings. She might point out that many children have periods in their preschool years when they find it very hard to be separated from their parents—adding, however, that she would like to find a way to help him regain his former enthusiasm for being at the center.

She might mention that Mr. G must find it very hard to face Terry's screams and cries each morning. She can inquire if it has been a problem for Mr. G to be late for work so frequently. She might also suggest that it would not be unreasonable for Mr. G to wonder if there is some legitimate cause for Terry not wanting to be at the center. With each of these overtures, Ms. R would need to watch for Mr. G's responses—verbal and nonverbal—to discover if she and Mr. G are indeed in agreement and to hear what Mr. G may have to add to the definition of the problem.



Photograph by Nancy P. Alexander

In some instances parents can be overwhelmed and immobilized by their child's problems. At these times staff can assist parents by tackling only one aspect of a problem at a time. For example, in the opening vignette, Ms. R may tell Mr. G that they are involved in a complicated situation and that they may both be able to move on with a solution if they focus on resolving just one of the issues that they have already agreed upon. She can then ask if Mr. G has a preference about which part of the problem he'd like to address first. He may be most concerned about being on time for his job or he may need to address his doubts about the center and feelings of guilt. If Mr. G does not have a preference, Ms. R can suggest one, perhaps based on her familiarity with similar situations with other children.

Another technique for engaging parents in solving a problem is to redefine the problem. Most interpersonal situations can be viewed in several ways. Some ways may cause an individual to become defensive and rigid while

the same situation, described in different terms, may evoke compassion and cooperation. One child care director told of explaining separation anxiety to parents by relating that children at around four years of age seem to fall in love in a new way with their parents. Much as with any young lovers, they are pained by the thought of separation! Another option for defining the problem of separation would be to focus on how troubling it is for children to think that they can control the significant adults in their lives. While all children need some areas in which they feel they are in control, children at four years of age still need clear and consistent limits set by their parents and the other adults in their lives.

2. Identify Options

Brainstorming is often a helpful method which encourages the parent and staff to list a wide variety of options. It is important to remember that this step is simply the **identifying** of options. In order to be really helpful, all options are to be listed without objection from either staff or

parent. This encourages the parent to retain a sense of control and assists him/her to assume partial responsibility both for the problem and the solution.

3. Evaluate Options

During this step the parent and staff will systematically examine each of the options that have been listed. This provides a wonderful opportunity for sharing ideas, beliefs, and developmental concepts. It can become a very creative time.

Sometimes it is helpful to begin by discussing briefly, in a general way, what children of a given age group are known to be able to do and not do. Within that framework, then, focus the discussion on one option at a time. Some of the following questions might be helpful: Is this option practical? Can we both (parent and staff) be consistent in its execution? What are the possible outcomes? Will this get the desired result we both want? Is it consistent with the center's policies? In an open give-and-take it is possible that some of the options will clearly be seen as impractical and be dropped.

4. Choose an Option

The next step is to establish an order of priority for the options that have withstood the practical review. Assigning an order of priority for the options, and actually choosing an option, may be quite simple or it may take some negotiation.

Begin this step by ranking all the options that remained on the list after the previous step. One way to arrive at a ranking is through mutual discussion. The ranking might also be done by having the staff and parent each list their

order of preference and then compare the results. Both parent and staff may have very strong opinions as to which option will work. For instance, staff clearly would not allow the selection of any option if the child's safety would be in jeopardy or if center policy would be violated.

In most cases a negotiated agreement will be reached. Keep in mind that sometimes a parent may need to test out his/her preference, even though staff feel certain that the parent's choice will not work. An example of this kind of situation would be if Mr. G continues to have strong questions about the center or is so bound by his own feelings of guilt that he needs to take a few mornings off work and stay with Terry at the center. Staff may feel that this will only raise Terry's expectations and further confuse him about the separation process. Yet if staff truly value Mr. G's right to make decisions concerning his management of his child, then he has the right to test out his idea. Perhaps it may be what he needs to help assuage his concerns and then be more confident in setting limits with Terry in the morning.

On the other hand, Terry may become more difficult and Mr. G will feel angry and resentful that he took time from work and did not see any value in his effort. In either case his right to try is respected and staff have a *teachable moment* in which to reaffirm that childrearing is not simple, that neither staff nor parent is always assured of having the right answer, and that if a strategy does not work, parent and staff can simply try another tact.

5. Plan to Evaluate

Whether there is wholehearted agreement and support for the

option or whether there is skepticism about the effectiveness of the option, a plan to evaluate the progress toward resolving the problem must be designed. The two main elements to keep in mind when making a plan to evaluate progress toward resolving a problem are a clearly stated goal and a time line.

If it was not done as part of the first step, the definition of the problem will have to be expanded to include how success will be defined by both the parent and staff. For example, the goal may be that Terry separates without crying and holding onto Mr. G. Or progress might be defined as Mr. G going off feeling less upset and guilty about leaving Terry, irrespective of Terry's behavior at the moment when Mr. G leaves.

Establishing a specific amount of time in which to work on an option can be helpful. When either staff or parent feel strongly that the selected option will not work, it may be important to set a short time frame in which to try it out. This allows for parent and staff to give each other information from their respective perspectives and permits the plan to be modified before it becomes part of the problem!

6. Evaluate

The final step of the process of solving a problem is to evaluate the progress. When things go well, it may seem that this step is an unnecessary burden on the exhausting schedules of child care staff and employed parents. Yet it is extremely important that the whole problem solving process have closure. The evaluation time provides an opportunity for parent and staff to assess together what has actually transpired. It allows staff an excellent time for reinforcing

developmental issues with parents, for briefly but explicitly celebrating the contributions each made to the effort. It can be another opportunity to comment on the strengths a parent brings and to reinforce the importance of a parent's taking time to be sure that his/her child has a good beginning.

In situations where the goal was not achieved, staff and parent will need to repeat steps 4 and 5—choose another option and make a plan to evaluate it.

Fortunately, in most cases, the evaluation is brief and actually becomes a time to celebrate a successful resolution.

Summary

Creative problem solving is a collaborative effort between parents and staff. Engaging parents in each step of the process can enlarge their understanding of child development and enhance their self-confidence. Using this process with parents can also provide them with a model for solving problems with their own children. And, finally, this style of working with parents toward a common goal serves to build a basis of mutual trust and respect that will be helpful in other circumstances that require parent-staff cooperation.

Nancy Johns, Ph.D., and Cathie Harvey, MSW, of Philadelphia Parenting Associates, provide training, staff development, and consultation to child care staff in a variety of settings.

TOILET TRAINING

Toilet training is a developmental step that children will want to achieve for **THEMSELVES** as they build their own personalities.

WHEN TO START TOILET TRAINING

1. Average age--around 24 months.
Some children are ready at 18 months, while others are not ready until 30 months.
2. INDICATIONS OF READINESS
Physical - The child:
 - Is able to control bodily functions
 - Stays dry during sleep and for several hours at a time during the day
 - Urinates a lot at one time
 - Knows when he is about to urinate
 - Indicates when she has urinated
 - Has adequate finger and hand coordination
 - Is able to feed and help dress himself
 - Can walk and run easily
 - Is able to sit and play for a short time.

Be aware that bowel and bladder training don't necessarily occur at the same time.

Emotional - The child:

- Is not in a violently negative period. Children need to be ready to be toilet trained.
- Wants to do things for herself.
- Is not experiencing any changes at home such as a new baby, a new house, visitors, or sickness.
- Is not coping with rapid language development.
- Is not being weaned from bottle, thumb, or blanket.

Intellectual - The child:

- Understands and can talk about the need to urinate and where.
- Shows interest in the toilet and its purpose.
- Shows imitative behavior such as brushing teeth and shaving.
- Can follow instructions such as pointing to nose, sitting down, or standing up.

YOUR ATTITUDES AFFECT THE CHILD'S TOILET TRAINING SUCCESS

You need to:

- Be patient and understanding
- Be optimistic. Eventually the child will be trained!
- Be matter of fact and calm when changing or cleaning the child.
- Avoid withdrawing love. The child should feel loved in spite of her actions.

- o Avoid a battle of wills.
- o Consider your attitude toward privacy in the bathroom and feelings toward products of elimination.

HELPFUL SUGGESTIONS

- o Encourage children to train themselves at their own speed.
- o Make use of children's love of imitation. Allow them to observe parents and other children in the bathroom. Play with a doll that wets.
- o A potty chair is usually more acceptable to a child than a seat that fits on the toilet because she can get on and off more easily.
- o Let the child explore the potty chair, permitting him to sit on it with clothes on to become familiar with it.
- o Have the child sit on it without diaper first thing in the morning and after a nap--times when a child might be ready to urinate or normally has a bowel movement.
- o Repeat the procedure several times during the day and offer praise when there are results.
- o At first avoid flushing the toilet while the child is in the bathroom. Some children are frightened by it.
- o Continue to use diapers at night, for nap times and shopping trips until the child is well-trained.
- o Teach appropriate words for bodily functions and body parts.
- o Allow children to wipe themselves, dump the contents of the potty chair into the toilet, and flush it, if flushing isn't frightening.
- o Training pants can be used when child uses the potty chair willingly and successfully.
- o Dress the child in elastic waisted pants to make undressing and dressing easier. She should be able to handle her own clothes and get on and off the potty chair.
- o Help the child take responsibility for his own toileting. Potty chair needs to be easily accessible.
- o Children will have accidents and sometimes regress during an illness or upsetting situation.

REMEMBER: There is no need to hurry. If you have a casual, relaxed manner, respect for the child's biological signals of the need to eliminate, and allow the child to do it himself, toilet training can be accomplished simply. Good luck! Keep calm!

FOR MORE INFORMATION READ:

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BOOKS TO READ TO CHILDREN:

No More Diapers. Joan G. Brooks, M.D., (Also has a section for parents.)

My Special Best Words, John Steptoe.

Compiled by Alice Howell, Instructor, SSCC Home & Family Life Department

APPENDIX D: FAMILIES AND CULTURES _____

research in review

The research we conduct and our resultant knowledge depends on the questions we ask, the methods we deem appropriate and fruitful, and the patterns of relationships and structures we are able to discover among the data. These empirical practices are heavily influenced by the assumptions, values, and the cultural filters of both the community of researchers and its individual members. It is important that we are reminded of these relationships as we seek to use and apply what we have learned. Janice Hale's position paper challenges much of social science research about Black children's development, and calls for research generated from a Black cultural perspective. Her discussion of cultural influences on children's development helps us to view existing research and its educational implications in a more critical manner. Her contribution to this column and to the profession rightly indicates where knowledge is inadequate and suggests feasible remedies.

J. H. S. Jr

Black Children: Their Roots, Culture, and Learning Styles

by Janice Hale

DuBois (1903) described the Black person in America as possessing two "warring souls." Black people are products of their Afro-American heritage and culture. However, they are also shaped by the demands of Anglo-American culture. Those who share the spirituality of the Black experience share it mentally and emotionally. Black people transform every cultural mode they interact with: language, music, religion, art, dance, problem solving, sports, writing, or any other areas of human expression.

The purpose of this article is to describe this spirituality or "soulfulness" and to demonstrate its relationship to the cognitive development of Black children, including the conflict that ensues when Black children are evaluated from an Anglo-centric framework.

This is one of a regular series of columns edited by Joseph H. Stevens, Ph.D., Professor, Department of Early Childhood Education, Georgia State University, Atlanta, Georgia.

Cultural style

Hilliard (1976) set forth some basic assumptions about human behavioral styles, or the framework from which people view the world. He reviewed several styles, and concluded that "every style is necessary, valuable and useful in human experience if society is to function fully (p. 43)." While style is evident in all areas of an individual's behavior, one can learn aspects of other styles. Hilliard also stated that strong relationships exist between style and socioeconomic level and between style and cultural or ethnic group membership. He found no evidence, however, of a relationship between basic intelligence and style.

Elements of Afro-American cultural style were also identified by Hilliard (1976). He stated that Afro-American people—

- tend to view things in their en-

tirety and not in isolated parts;

- seem to prefer inferential reasoning rather than deductive or inductive reasoning;
- tend to approximate space, number, and time instead of aiming for complete accuracy;
- appear to focus on people and their activities rather than objects. Many Black students have chosen careers in the helping professions even though these types of jobs are scarce and the curriculum is rigorous.
- have a keen sense of justice and quickly perceive injustice;
- tend to prefer novelty, personal freedom and distinctiveness, such as in music and styles of clothing;
- in general tend not to be "word" dependent, but are proficient in non-verbal as well as verbal communication.

Akbar (1975) described the Afro-American child (see Figure 1).

Cohen (1971) delineated two styles of learning and of schools in terms of differences in methods for selecting and classifying information. Hilliard (1976) summarized the characteristics of the analytical and relational styles (see Figure 2).

Most schools require an analytical approach to learning (Cohen 1971). Children who function with a different cognitive style or who have not developed analytical skills will be poor achievers early in school and will do worse as they move to higher grade levels.

Not only does the school reward development of the analytic style of processing information, but the overall ideology and environment of the school

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reinforces behaviors associated with that style.

Aspects of analytic style can be found in the requirements that the pupil learn to sit increasingly long periods of time, to concentrate alone on impersonal learning stimuli, and to observe and value organized time-allotment schedules. (Cohen 1971, p. 829)

The differences between children who function with relational and analytic styles is so great that children whose cognitive organization is relational are unlikely to be rewarded with grades regardless of their native ability, the extent of their learning, or their experiences. In fact, they will probably be considered deviant and disruptive in the analytically oriented learning environment of the school (Cohen 1971).

Hilliard (1976) agreed that most schools support the analytic cognitive style, and contrasted these schools with

Figure 1

The Afro-American Child

Is highly affective
Uses language requiring a wide use of many coined interjections (sometimes profanity)
Expresses herself or himself through considerable body language
Relies on words that depend upon context for meaning and that have little meaning in themselves
Prefers using expressions that have several connotations
Adopts a systematic use of nuances of intonation and body language such as eye movement and positioning
Prefers oral-aural modalities for learning communication
Is highly sensitive to others' nonverbal cues
Seeks to be people oriented
Is sociocentric
Uses internal cues for problem solving
Feels highly empathetic
Likes spontaneity
Adapts rapidly to novel stimuli

those based on the relational cognitive style (Figure 3).

Origins of cognitive style

Cohen (1971) suggested that children develop cognitive styles based upon the socialization they receive in their families and friendships. Children who live in structured families with "formal" styles of group organization have been observed to function with the analytical cognitive style. Those children who live in more fluid or "shared-function" primary groups, are more likely to exhibit the relational cognitive style.

Although that explanation has some merit, more work is needed to describe the socialization of Black children that leads to their distinctive cognitive styles.

Affective orientation

The cognitive styles of Black people seem to place a greater degree of emphasis upon affect than Anglo-Americans. Some scholars have suggested that the emotion-charged, people-oriented quality of Black expression is a part of the African heritage.

Knowledge in Western societies is largely derived from such propositions as "I think, therefore, I am." The non-Western heritage of Afro-Americans suggests that knowledge stems from the proposition that, "I feel, therefore I think, therefore, I am." (Dixon and Foster 1971, p. 18)

The uniqueness of Black culture can be explained in that it is a culture whose emphasis is on the nonverbal . . . in Black culture, it is the experience that counts, not what is said. (Lester 1969, p. 87)

This does not mean that Black people do not think or conceptualize their experience symbolically. Intellectual analysis disconnected from feelings

leads to incomplete knowledge of the world (Haskins and Butts 1973).

There are research studies (Gitter, Black, and Mostofsky 1972; Young 1970) that have found Black children to be more feeling oriented, people oriented, and more proficient at non-verbal communication than White children. It is important to determine the implications of these attributes for their cognitive development (Gitter, Black, and Mostofsky 1972).

Young (1970) suggested that White children are object oriented and have numerous opportunities to manipulate objects and discover properties and relationships. Consequently, this society's educational system is very object oriented, and classrooms are filled with educational hardware and technology—books, listening stations, learning centers, televisions, programmed instruction, learning kits, and so forth.

In contrast, research with Black children has found them to be more people oriented. Most Black children grow up in large families where they have a great deal of human interaction. While traveling in Africa, I was interested in the kinds of dolls with which the children of Ghana play. One mother informed me that African children do not play with dolls, they play with their mother's babies!

This high degree of people orientation may account for the indifference with which some Black children regard books and other materials. It may also explain why some teachers complain that Black children will not work independently, but will cling to the teacher. I observed a classroom in which there were children who would work only when older children assisted them individually. This cultural trait should be acknowledged by providing more human interaction in the learning process.

Young (1970) provided evidence about childrearing practices that influence this people orientation.

Even though household composition varies widely in the Black community, each is almost certain to contain many different types of people of all ages to hold and play with the baby. In many cases, the physical closeness between infants and adults is reinforced by the fact that they are often observed to sleep with their parents or either parent alone. There is a kind of rhythm found between eating and napping with short periods of each activity found with frequent repetition. This rhythm is very different from the disciplined long span of attention cultivated in middle-class childrearing and expected in schools. (p. 276)

Because Black babies are held so much of the time, there is an immediate response to urination and bowel movements. Hence, from an early age, there is an association in the infant's mind between these functions, and action from the mother. Consequently, when the mother seeks to toilet train the child (in the early and stringent manner that has been observed in the Black community), the child is accustomed to her direct involvement in this process. In contrast, the transition is more startling for middle-class American infants whose functions typically occur alone. The mother begins to interfere with bowel and bladder activity after many months of only cursory attention. There is greater continuity, then, in the behavior of Black mothers.

Young contrasted the highly personal interaction with the low object orientation found in Black families. She noticed that the few objects given to the babies were plastic toys that may have been picked up in the supermarket while shopping. Also, when babies reached to grasp an object or feel a surface, they were often redirected to feeling the holder's face or engaged in a game of rubbing faces as a substitute. This inhibition of exploration is possible because:

there are always eyes on the baby and idle hands to take away the forbidden objects and then distract the frustrated

baby. The personal is thus often substituted for the impersonal. (p. 279-280)

This affective orientation may be a critical factor that is overlooked in traditional educational settings. Rapport with the teacher in educational settings and rapport with the examiner in testing settings seems to be strongly related to academic performance for Black students and not very critical for Whites. Zigler and his colleagues (Zigler and Butterfield 1968; Zigler, Abelson, and Seitz 1973) found that when a good rapport was established between an examiner during a standardized testing session, the Black children exhibited significantly superior test performance than when it was not. Such a difference was not found in the White middle-class sample.

Piestrup (1973) identified some factors which created good rapport in the teacher-Black student interaction, including warmth, verbal interplay during instruction, rhythmic style of speech and distinctive intonation in speech patterns. When those factors were present, first-grade Black pupils showed increased reading proficiency.

Contrasts between Nigerian and Western cultures

It may be useful to examine some aspects of African culture to identify antecedents of the affective orientation of Afro-Americans. Esen (1973) analyzed the childrearing practices found in Nigeria and pointed out differences in United States and African cultures. He referred to the clusters of African attitudes and modes of response as the "care syndrome." Most Africans grow up in a small rural community and are imbued from early childhood with an empathetic concern for others. In contrast, children who grow up in Western societies often do not know their neighbors, do not care about the people



Chris Bullock

Schools should support the natural energy level of Black children who need an active environment for successful learning.

in their communities, and do not offer help to those who are in even desperate need.

Esen suggested that the African modes of childrearing give rise to the development of humane attitudes and the care syndrome. Unlike Western childrearing, African socialization emphasizes the closeness of people. Physical and psychological closeness is reinforced by encouragement of body contact between people. Most African children

are breast fed and are nursed for longer periods of time than in other societies. Before and after children learn to walk, they are held a great deal of the time by an older sibling. In most cases, infants sleep with their mothers until a new baby arrives. African children learn early in childhood to embrace relatives and friends in greeting them or thanking them for a special favor. Thus, the children grow up in a social network characterized by physical close-

ness, acceptance, and care. African children expect to receive affection and comfort and learn to give it when it is needed by others. By the time African children are six years old, they begin to take responsibility for providing care for a younger sibling. They carry the child on their backs, cradle the child on their laps, and learn to respond with body contact and carrying behavior to fit the needs of the child.

Esen believed that in Western society, objects come between children and their mothers. Babies are more prone to be bottle fed, pushed around in baby carriages, placed in playpens to play alone, and left in separate rooms in a different bed for sleeping. These gadgets come physically between babies and their

mothers' bodies and interfere with the physical and psychological body warmth that is provided in Africa.

From the African viewpoint, Western children are socialized into a life of detachment and impersonalness. These early attitudes are also expressed later in the detached urban environment. People are seen as things in the distance or numbers in the computer. A basic aloofness toward people begins with the distance from the mother created by the feeding bottle and the baby carriage.

Esen suggested that the care syndrome is reflected in the use of language among African people. One key indicator is the system of elaborate and emotional greetings. Greetings always include inquiries about people who are

Figure 2
Analytical and Relational
Cognitive Styles
(compiled from
Rosalee Cohen)

Analytical Style

Stimulus centered
Parts-specific
Finds non-obvious attributes
Abstracts common or generalizable principle of a stimulus
Notices formal properties of a stimulus that have relatively stable and long lasting meanings
Ignores the idiosyncratic
Extracts from embedded context
Names extracted properties and gives them meaning in themselves
Relationships tend to be linear
Relationships which are noticed tend to be static and descriptive other than functional or inferential
Relationships seldom involve process or motivation as a basis for relations
Perception of conceptual distance between observers and observed
An objective attitude—a belief that everything takes place "out there" in the stimulus

Stimulus viewed as formal, long lasting and relatively constant, therefore there is opportunity to study it in detail
Long attention span
Long concentration span
Greater perceptual vigilance
A reflective attitude and relatively sedentary nature
Language style is standard English of controlled elaboration
Language depends upon relatively long lasting and stable meanings of words
Language depends upon formal and stable rules of organization
Communications are intended to be understood in themselves, i.e., without dependence upon non-verbal cues or idiosyncratic context
"Parts of speech" can readily be seen in nonsense sentences
Analytic speech characterized by "hesitation phenomena," pauses for verbal planning by controlled vocal modulation and revision of sentence organization to convey specific meaning, since words have formal meanings
Sometimes view of self expressed as an aspect of roles such as function to be performed
View of self tends to be in terms of status-roles

important to the person, in contrast to Western greetings which discuss the weather and rarely inquire about human life and conditions.

The closest they ever seem to come to some concern for the individual is with "How are you?" And even that in American usage has become impersonalized into a mere "Hi." (p. 208)

African languages seem to express caring and feeling to a greater extent than Western languages, too.

The extended family system also supports the care syndrome. Children see parents, grandparents, uncles, aunts, and cousins as a part of everyday life. The survival of the family depends upon how the members care about and

provide for each other.

The nuclear family structure of father-mother-child in Western culture does not encourage this extended caring network. Grandparents usually must fend for themselves during their last years or be sent to retirement homes filled with strangers and impersonal relationships.

Brazelton, Young, and Bullowa (1971) supported Esen's thesis in a study in which they compared infants born to Zambian mothers and infants born to White American mothers. The health of the Zambian mothers was not optimal, so the Zambian infants weighed less, were shorter, and less healthy than the White infants.

The two groups of infants were

Relational Style

Self-centered
Global
Fine descriptive characteristics
Identifies the unique
Ignores commonalities
Embedded for meaning
Relevant concepts must have special or personal relevance to observer
Meanings are unique depending upon immediate context
Generalizations and linear notions are generally unused and devalued
Parts of the stimulus and its non-obvious attributes are not given names and appear to have no meaning in themselves
Relationships tend to be functional and inferential
Since emphasis is placed on the unique and the specific, global and the discrete, on notions of difference rather than on variation or common things, the search for mechanism to form abstract generalizations is not stimulated
Responses tend to be affective
Perceived conceptual distance between the observer and the observed is narrow
The field is perceived as responding to the person
The field may have a life of its own
Personification of the inanimate

Distractable
Emotional
Over involved in all activities
Easily angered by minor frustrations
Immediacy of response
Short attention span
Short concentration span
Gestalt learners
Descriptive abstraction for word selection
Words must be embedded in specific time bound context for meaning
Few synonyms in language
Language dependent upon unique context and upon many interactional characteristics of the communicants on time and place, on inflection, muscular movements and other non-verbal cues
Fluent spoken language
Strong colorful expressions
Wide range of meaningful vocal intonation and inflection
Condensed conditions sensitivity to hardly perceptible variations of mood and tone in other individuals and in their surroundings
Poor response to timed, scheduled, pre-planned activities which interfere with immediacy of response
Tends to ignore structure
Self descriptions tend to point to essence

(Hilliard 1976, pp. 36-38)



Betty C. Ford

Black children tend to be more feeling oriented, people oriented, and more proficient at nonverbal communication than White children.

examined on days one, five, and ten after birth. On the day one examination, the Zambian infants scored significantly lower on following with eyes, motor activity, irritability, rapidity of buildup, and alertness. By day ten, however, the Zambian babies had surpassed the American infants in cuddliness, reactivity to stimulation, alertness, social interest, and consolability. The Zambian mothers' high-contact, loving environment for their babies provided more handling and feeding contact with their infants than the American mothers.

Nonverbal communication

Lower-class families have been reported to have a minimal amount of verbal exchange (Young 1970). She stated that this is because of the abundance of communication in other forms. She observed that people in these families look deeply into each other's eyes, not speaking, but seeming to communicate fully. Parents use this technique to impress a point on a child. Black people often avoid meeting the eyes of Whites, and this has been interpreted as a gesture of inequality or nonattention.

However, Young suggested that it may instead be a gesture of noncommunicativeness. The gaze of Whites is avoided to cut off that intense level of communication that Black people share with each other. Or, because it is a part of African heritage to respect elders, to look an authority figure directly in the eye is considered defiant and disrespectful.

Other forms of Black nonverbal communication are the mother's caressing of the baby, and children sitting in a circle rubbing bare feet. Young also noted what she called a "mutuality" in family relations exhibited in remarks that pass between mothers and children.

"I'm tired," the three-year-old girl complains. "I'm tired too," her mother responds. "I want some ice cream," the eight-year-old says wistfully as the ice cream truck passes. "I want some too," is the mother's way of saying no. This echoing of words and tone of voice is a common speech pattern. One does not see mothers and children clash and contend. (p. 296)

Two other studies (Newmeyer 1970; Gitter, Black, and Mostofsky 1972) supported the hypothesis that Black culture develops proficiency in nonverbal communication. Newmeyer had a group of young Black and White males act out a number of emotions nonverbally. The Black children were better at enacting the emotions so that others perceived them correctly. Gitter, Black, and Mostofsky conducted a study with Black and White college students. Each student was shown still photographs of professional actors attempting to portray each of seven emotions. The Black students made significantly more correct judgments of the emotions portrayed.

Physical development

Morgan (1976) suggested that Black infants are superior in all aspects of development when the mothers have ade-

quate prenatal care. He also pointed out that Black children are more active and have more physical energy than White children.

Black lower-income mothers have been criticized for not providing enough toys for their children (Morgan 1976). Compensatory education programs often purchased toys and playthings to distribute to these families. Morgan indicted such efforts.

Little thought was given to the fact that the tinker toy concept dictates that children are expected to sit in the crib or thereabouts and play quietly with their toys until their favorite TV program comes on. Without these toys, of course, mother and child touch, exchange various forms of communications and learn from one another. (p. 133)

The Black child in school

Morgan (1976) maintained that the schools do not support the natural energy level of Black children who need an active environment for successful learning. He stated that this is particularly true of lower-income children whose parents emphasize survival skills rather than conformity, docility, and quiet manners which are more typical of middle-class childrearing where upward mobility is sought.

Black children enter school for the first time with excitement and enthusiasm. However, the school crushes the freedom and creativity of children who cannot channel their energy until given permission to release it. Consequently Black children elicit more punishment and are labeled hyperactive more frequently because of their high motoric activity (Morgan 1976).

Morgan (1976) believed that Black mothers often ignore their children's motoric precocity and do not seek to extend it because development in that area

Figure 3
The School

As it is in general
(Analytical . . .)

Rules
Standardization
Conformity
Memory for specific facts
Regularity
Rigid order
"Normality"
Differences equal deficits
Preconceive
Precision
Logical
Atomistic
Egocentric
Convergent
Controlled
Meanings are universal
Direct
Cognitive
Linear
Mechanical
Unison
Hierarchical
Isolation
Deductive
Scheduled
Thing focused
Constant
Sign oriented
Duty

As it could be
(Relational . . .)

Freedom
Variation
Creativity
Memory for essence
Novelty
Flexibility
Uniqueness
Sameness equals oppression
Improvise
Approximate
Psychological
Global
Sociocentric
Divergent
Expressive
Meanings are contextual
Indirect
Affective
Patterned
Humanistic
Individual in group
Democratic
Integration
Inductive
Targets of opportunity
People focus
Evolving
Meaning oriented
Loyalty

(Hilliard 1976, p. 41)

might interfere with the child's ability to be integrated into the school system of White low motor expectations. This situation, he maintained, is detrimental to the natural learning styles of Black children.

Morgan (1976) suggested that Black children need schools that are "uncrowded, open and airy with a great deal of natural light, [and] plenty of private space for teachers and learners (p. 130)." He also suggested that model classrooms should be established for research purposes where "special non-punitive environments are created as

centers of learning for children who require more free space and movement than what schools normally allow (p. 130)."

Boykin (1978) suggested that the Black home environment provides an abundance of stimulation, intensity, and variation through high noise levels and large numbers of people. This has been analyzed as "over stimulation" and as creating "conceptual deafness" by some social scientists (Marans and Lourie 1967; Goldman and Sanders 1969; Wachs, Uzgiris, and Hunt 1971). However, Boykin hypothesized that this

stimulating home environment produces greater psychological and behavioral *verve* in Black children than children from a White middle-class setting.

Black children may learn faster with techniques that incorporate body movement into the learning process. Guttentag (1972) and Guttentag and Ross (1972) found that Black preschool children possess a greater movement repertoire than both lower- and middle-class White preschoolers. They also showed that Black children learned simple verbal concepts easier when they utilized movement than when they were taught by a more traditional format. Massari and Meyer (1969) also found that the children who could inhibit movement had higher IQ scores.

Boykin (1977) found that varying the format in problem-solving tasks presented to Black and White children did not make a difference in the performance of the White children. However, the Black children performed markedly better with the varied format.

Thus, especially for Black children, schools are rather unstimulating and monotonous places to be (Silberman 1970; Holt 1964). Boykin suggested that the reason White children are more successful at academic tasks than Black children is that they have a greater tolerance for monotony. Perhaps Black children are not as successful in school because they are relatively more intolerant of monotonous, boring tasks, and the sterile unstimulating school environment.

The effectiveness of the use of rhythm in speech and verbal interplay by teachers of Black children may also connect culturally with Black children who interact rhythmically with their mothers at home. Young (1970) observed a "contest" style of speech between Black mothers and children in which they volley rhythmically and the child is encouraged to be assertive and to

develop an individual style. Young suggested there is a distinctive manner by which Black mothers give directions for household tasks that approximates the call and response patterns found in Black music. (A mother's communication of directions for household tasks uses few words, and tasks for which she has to give instructions are broken down into small units with brief directions for each short task following completion of the previous one.)

Boykin (1978) concluded that affective stimulation and vivacity are necessary for the Black child to be motivated to achieve in an academic setting. He suggested that this is the reason why Black children become turned off by the sterile, boring school environment and seek other arenas for achievement and expression. He suggested that "perhaps we can facilitate the academic/task performance of the Black child if we increase the 'soulfulness' of the academic task setting."

Looking toward the future

What do we need to know about Black culture in order to design learning environments for Black children? We must conduct a wide-ranging examination of all aspects of at-home interaction that can provide descriptive information about the world view of the Black child. These areas especially deserve attention from Black researchers who wish to lead the work that defines their own culture and learning styles.

Movement: An examination of the amount and utilization of space that is occupied during children's play is needed. It would be interesting to determine the amount of time Black children spend in quiet activities as compared with active movement, because this would have implications for the length of time adults should require children to sit and concentrate on tasks.

Dance: How much reinforcement are

Black children given as toddlers to dance in addition to encouragement to walk? Could early expressions of rhythm through dance have any influence upon the physical precocity of Black children? Does early proficiency in dance affect mathematical ability?

Music: What are the stages by which Black children respond to music? How prevalent is music in the Black environment? What is the preferred type of music? How often are songs sung to children and by children? What songs are sung? Why are Black children remarkably able to memorize popular songs? How can that ability be transferred to other types of learnings?

Home environment: Any description of environments in which Black children live, play, and develop should encompass artistic descriptors as well as indicators of affluence and educational enrichment. Note should be taken of color preferences in Black homes as well as any other distinctive features in decor, furniture styles, and arrangement. This information may be useful in designing learning environments for Black children. For example, Black children may learn most effectively or exhibit distinctive moods based upon the colors of the classroom walls.

Fashion: Black people have emphasized personal distinctiveness in their dress, and Black males in particular have influenced the fashion industry by setting trends such as wide-leg pants and bright colors in suits and shirts. A study of the types of clothing worn by Black children for various occasions might reveal the extent to which children are dressed according to the tastes of their parents, and at what age the children begin to express preferences and make choices. Those choices could be analyzed to determine how much influence the Black cultural milieu has on Black children's dress.

Folklore: An ethnographic study of ex-

pressive styles should record the folklore of Black children. Most studies of the language of Black children have been from a linguistic perspective, but it may also be useful to study the verbal skills of Black children. There are also stylistic dimensions of the oral tradition in Black culture as described by Silberman (1970): call and response, rhythmic patterns, spontaneity, and concreteness. Games, stories, chants, jump rope rhymes, curse words, and "playin' the dozens" could be analyzed to ascertain the psychological processes they reflect. It is also important to understand the way in which the culture of the Black community affects the fantasy of Black children.

Nutrition: A study of Black children's nutrition may be important in interpreting their behavior. Any study of foods popular with Blacks should encompass food selection and spicing. This information has obvious implications for health services. It would also be helpful in planning menus and nutrition education programs for Black children.

Rookwood (1978) suggested investigating the mealtime patterns of Black families. Teachers are often encouraged to serve meals family style. Rookwood observed a teacher in a Head Start center who had the children eat one by one. When questioned about the practice, the teacher replied that this pattern of eating was more similar to the style of eating of many of the children at home wherein family members "catch a plate" whenever they arrived and were hungry. She found that the children played less at the table, ate more, and seemed to feel better. The teacher stated that children eat better when they can concentrate on eating rather than telling the teacher the color of the peas.

Magical-spiritual beliefs: Rubin (1975) noted a deep concern with the spiritual and the supernatural among Black chil-

dren. Examining these modes will help to better understand the world view of the Black child and determine the implications for concept development.

The story has been told of a child named Akin who was accustomed to hearing bedtime stories each night that told of Tarzan and the Lion. In each episode, Tarzan always defeated the

Lion. So, one night, Akin asked his mother when the Lion was going to win. His mother closed the book and sighed, "Honey, I guess the Lion will beat Tarzan when lions begin to write books."

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Margie K. Kitano

Early Education for Asian American Children

The 1970 United States census revealed that people of Asian and Pacific Island descent constitute a significant minority. In 1970, individuals of Japanese, Chinese, Filipino, Vietnamese, Korean, Hawaiian, and Samoan ancestry together numbered over one and one-half million, and immigration continues to increase the count.

Despite the large population of Asian Americans, little is known about specific educational needs, particularly at the early childhood and elementary levels. One factor that may underlie the sparsity of relevant educational literature is the stereotype of Asian Americans as members of a successful "model minority," a picture that may generalize to early school performance. In light of evidence contradicting the success image for income, mental health, and education (Sue, Sue, and Sue 1975), instructional practices more appropriate to the needs of Asian American youngsters must be identified.

Literature Review

Even a cursory glance at literature pertinent to Asian American early education reveals three facts. First, very little information is available on this topic, particularly with reference to the critical variables

of learning style and orientation toward school. Second, some of the available empirical works are dated, use select samples, and/or fail to report information vital to the studies' replicability and credibility. Hence, only limited generalizations can be made to current educational practices. Third, Asian American children's learning characteristics cannot be described without consideration of cultural variables, including culture-specific child-rearing practices. The review is organized by subgroup, as each represents a unique culture. Order of presentation reflects population size.

Japanese

The Japanese, numbering 620,490* persons in 1976, constitute the largest Asian American subgroup.

Cultural factors. Two general features of Japanese American culture have been identified as influencing psychological development: cultural values and family structure. Japanese and Chinese cultural values emphasize obedience, dependence on the family, formality in interpersonal relationships, and restraint in expressing emotion (Sue 1973). Consistent with these values, the Japanese family is structured to inhibit internal conflict and to foster extended dependency (Kitano 1973). The lines of authority are vertical, with the father in supreme position. Family members have well-defined roles and follow established ways of interacting with those in higher and lower positions of power. Each member is expected to mask strong feelings that may disrupt family harmony. The personality characteristics of Japanese American students reflect these cultural values and family structures. Generalization of such traits to all Japanese Americans should be tempered, however, by findings of significant variation within the Japanese American group.

* Does not include new births occurring between 1971 and 1976.

Consistent with cultural values and family structure, Japanese childrearing practices have been described as involving less direct confrontation than American techniques, low verbosity but high control, provision of outside stimuli, diversion of the child's attention, and shaping of cooperation by reference to its effects on others. Parents control children's behavior by evoking fear of personal ridicule and shame on the family as primary sanctions and by appealing to obligation and duty (Kitano 1974).

A series of studies on maternal care and infant behavior in Japanese, Japanese American, and Anglo American families related specific maternal behaviors to children's development (Caudill 1971; Caudill and Weinstein 1969). Results indicated that Anglo mothers engaged in more lively chatting to their infants, resulting in a higher level of infant vocalization and exploratory activity. Japanese mothers were observed to do more vocal lulling and rocking, fostering more physically passive infants. Comparable data obtained on Japanese American mothers (Sansei) and their infants indicated patterns closer to those of Anglo Americans than to those of the Japanese (Caudill and Frost 1972).

Other data on a small sample of Japanese American mother-child pairs, however, suggest that Japanese American mothers provide less training in verbal interaction than do Anglo American mothers, resulting in lower child verbalization rates (Moritsugu 1971).

Learning characteristics. Little empirical work has been done to provide an adequate description of Japanese American children's learning characteristics. Minor attention has been given to achievement,

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motivation, and cognitive style, but most has been directed at secondary level children. An early study comparing Anglo and Japanese American children in California suggested that Japanese American children were "inferior" to Anglos in mental processes involving memory and abstract thinking (Darsie 1926). The data indicated, however, that the Anglo American children's superiority was generally limited to specifically linguistic tests; Japanese American children were equal or superior on tests using concrete, nonverbal, visually-presented stimuli.

Only one study (Ayabe and Santo 1972) was found on cognitive styles. Japanese and Chinese second graders were compared with Filipino, Hawaiian, and Samoan elementary school children in Hawaii on conceptual tempo, or speed of response. Results indicated that Chinese and Japanese children with fast conceptual tempo produced significantly fewer errors than fast tempo children of other ethnicities. The authors suggested that Japanese and Chinese cultural values of perseverance, restraint, and patience may have led to greater accuracy in performance.

Chinese

Chinese Americans represent the second largest Asian American subgroup, with a population reported in 1976 at 544,462*. Over half of the Chinese population live in the western states, 39 percent in California alone ("Asian American Facts and Figures" 1975).

Cultural factors. Sue and Kirk (1972) suggested that family emphasis on tradition, conformity, respect for authority, and submergence of individuality fostered greater anxiety and less tolerance for ambiguity. Emphasis on family loyalty, control of behavior through guilt and shame, and distrust of outsiders contributed to the seeming absence of concern for social

* Does not include new births occurring between 1971 and 1976.

welfare. An investigation of Chinese Americans and immigrants in Hawaii indicated that despite trends toward assimilation, traditional values and family systems persist (Young 1972). No one pattern characterizes all Chinese Americans, however, and the range of differences within the group requires consideration.

Several investigators (Borke and Sue 1972; Kriger and Kroes 1972; Steward and Steward 1973) have attempted to define specific childrearing factors that affect Chinese American children's behavior. In a study most relevant to the behavior of young children, Steward and Steward (1973) observed Anglo, Mexican, and Chinese American mothers teaching their three-year-old children a sorting and motor skill game. Chinese American mothers were less likely to initiate and complete teaching-learning "loops" which consisted of gaining the child's attention, providing instruction, waiting for the child's response, and providing feedback. Within this group, English-speaking Chinese mothers provided significantly more loops than did Chinese-speaking mothers. Chinese American mothers also less frequently increased their specificity of instructions following children's requests for help. With regard to attitudes, Chinese American mothers considered teaching to be an important part of the maternal role and had regular formal instruction for their preschool age children. It was noted that kindergarten teachers found that Chinese American mothers often requested notification if the child did not learn.

Learning characteristics. Data from early studies investigating the tested intelligence of Chinese American children suggested that no striking differences exist between Chinese and Anglo American children (Yeung 1921) and that both groups may evidence higher test performance than their Japanese, Hawaiian, Filipino, and Korean peers (Livesay 1942). Other investigators working in the 1920s

reported higher scores on nonverbal than verbal measures of intelligence (Symonds 1924b) and equal or superior performance to Anglo children on tests that minimize language factors (Graham 1926). It was also reported that Chinese language school attendance had a negligible effect on acquisition and use of English in elementary school children (Symonds 1924a). Consistent with earlier findings, studies done in the 1960s (e.g., Stodolsky and Lesser 1967) indicated that Chinese American boys and girls performed higher on spatial, numerical, and reasoning than verbal tasks. A more recent but methodologically limited study (Chen and Goon 1976) was interpreted as indicating that gifted, low-income, Asian American children possess verbal skills equal or superior to those of their non-Asian gifted peers despite the fact that English was their second language. An investigation of Chinese American children attending a private school also failed to demonstrate a relationship between exposure to English and intelligence test scores (Yee and LaForge 1974). The authors suggested, as one explanation, that parents' positive attitudes toward learning and emphases on biculturalism, bilingualism, and English may mask potential differences. Although the effects of Chinese-English bilingualism on intelligence test performance remain unclear, bilingualism may affect learning in other ways. It has been suggested, for example, that bilingualism impairs fluency and flexibility on creativity measures, due to competing associations arising from the use of two different languages (Torrance, Wu, Gowan, and Aliotti 1970).

Filipinos

Filipino Americans represent the third largest Asian American subgroup. Although the 1970 census reported a population of 343,060 persons, an additional 200,300 Filipinos have immigrated since 1970 (U.S. Bureau of the Census 1977).

Cultural factors and learning characteristics. A few authors (e.g., Guthrie 1961) have attempted to describe aspects of Filipino culture regarding childrearing practices and values and their effect on behavior. Since the Filipino people come from many tribal and racial origins, reflecting cultural and language diversity, it is difficult to present a general discussion of childrearing patterns. Research has been done on intelligence test performance (Livesay 1942) and achievement motivation (Aldaba-Lim and Javillonar 1968; Kubany, Gallimore, and Buell 1970; Sloggett, Gallimore, and Kubany 1970) of Filipinos, but is limited to high school age students.

Vietnamese

After the fall of Saigon in spring 1975, over 130,000 Vietnamese and Cambodian refugees immigrated to the United States (Martin 1976), displacing Koreans as the fourth largest Asian American group. As of December 1, 1976, 144,072 Indochina refugees were resettled in the United States. Of these, 20,400 (16.6 percent) were under six years of age (U.S. Bureau of the Census 1977). Recent news resources report that the number of refugees now approximate 200,000 or more (Oppenheimer 1979).

Background. The experiences of Vietnamese children in war-torn Southeast Asia and in their new role as refugees in America cannot help but influence their psychological development and learning needs. A former teacher in Vietnam (Dinh 1976) described several factors, including confrontation with death and evacuation hardships, which have hindered Vietnamese children's adjustment to their new way of life.

Cultural factors and learning characteristics. In addition to language differences, aspects of Vietnamese culture that may influence children's learning include traditional relationships with parents and teachers and expectations concerning

school. Findings of a seminar with Vietnamese educators indicated that as a group, Vietnamese children are willing students, due possibly to the culture's respect for education and educators (Maldonado 1976). Children's roles in relation to parents are characterized by obedience, and the teacher's status supercedes that of the father (Arizona State Department of Education 1976).

Amount of previous school experience and expectations about teaching-learning methods may also affect Vietnamese children's behavior in American schools. Due to the sparsity of books and other materials, Vietnamese students were accustomed to learning through rote methods, listening and taking notes, memorization, repetition, and recitation. Teachers lectured and wrote on the board, rarely asking children to engage in discussion (Dinh 1976; Maldonado 1976). Perhaps children's passive role in relation to parents and teachers is reflected in their characterization as shy, having respect for elders, and being introspective versus expressive (Arizona State Department of Education 1976). Fewer adjustment problems seem to occur at lower grades where children have had less exposure to traditional forms of Vietnamese education. Parents and children, however, may require preparation for preschool and kindergarten programs. Parents may lack familiarity with the concept of early childhood education since only private schools in Vietnam offered such programs (Maldonado 1976).

As with all other Asian-American groups, broad individual differences exist within the Vietnamese population. Children's degree of difference from American expectations may depend on whether they came from urban or rural areas of Vietnam and from intellectual or illiterate families. Attention to time, for example, has been noted to differ between urban and rural children. Finally, it should be remembered that not all Vietnamese children came to America as refugees.

Koreans

The 1970 census reported a Korean population in the United States of 70,000. Since 1970, 150,200 Koreans have immigrated to the United States (U.S. Bureau of the Census 1977). Korean Americans appear to be more dispersed in America than are other Asian groups. In 1970, 44 percent were living in the West, 20 percent in the Northeast, 19 percent in the Midwest, and 17 percent in the South.

Cultural factors and learning characteristics. Perhaps due to the relatively small number of Korean children in the United States, a review of literature yields little empirical information on their learning characteristics and the effect of their cultural background on psychological development. However, the unique problems faced by Korean American children and the effects on their schooling have been described (Hahn and Dobb 1975). Few educational programs designed specifically for Korean American children exist due perhaps to their small and scattered numbers. Staggered immigration is characteristic of Korean-American families, with one member arriving first, getting settled, and sending for the others. This system often results in long periods of separation and large discrepancies between individual members in English fluency. In the schools, Korean American children encounter little exposure to their own culture and are frequently mistaken for Chinese and Japanese.

One effect of this relative isolation from cultural peers may be lowered self-concept. In a comparison of Korean American and Black American children on self-concept (Chang 1975), Korean Americans scored higher on items related to behavior, intelligence, school status, happiness, and satisfaction. They were significantly lower, however, on physical appearance and popularity. Chang attributed the lower scores on appearance and popularity items to their isolation from other Korean children and consequent

feelings that they are physically different. Parents' positive attitudes toward school and childrearing practices were hypothesized to account for Korean children's higher school-related self-concept scores relative to Black children.

Hawaiians

The 1970 census counted nearly 100,000 Hawaiians in the United States, 72,000 residing in Hawaii, 14,000 in California, and 13,000 elsewhere.

Cultural factors. Several authors describe family structure and childrearing practices as important cultural variables in development of Hawaiian children. Data collected in a five-year field study on Hawaiians in Hawaii described the Hawaiian family as an organized and purposeful socialization system that directs its children toward the ultimate goal of family commitment through useful contribution to the family (Gallimore, Boggs, and Jordan 1974). The outstanding features of the family system are interdependence, shared-functioning, and benevolent authoritarianism on the part of the parents. As a consequence, Hawaiian youth learn to approach their elders with respect; make requests in a subtle, indirect manner; and handle authority relationships through group cooperation and avoidance rather than through negotiation with authority figures.

Learning characteristics. Consistent with cultural role expectations and family emphasis on interdependence, Hawaiian children appear to develop behavioral styles characterized by avoidance of confrontation and motivation for shared versus individual achievement. These culture-based styles bring Hawaiian students into conflict with the school (Gallimore, Boggs, and Jordan 1974). Compared to Anglos, Hawaiian children have been found to make fewer direct verbal requests of adults outside the home and to work harder and longer for group rather than individual rewards (Gallimore 1972).

There is also evidence that need for affiliation rather than need for achievement may be a more significant motivation for Hawaiians (Gallimore 1972). Preliminary research findings have suggested that systematic use of positive reinforcement, peer pressure, and reduced use of negative control practices may be useful in modifying the school behavior of Hawaiian children and increasing class productivity (Sloggett 1969).

In addition to differences in cultural values, language differences displayed by some Hawaiian children may put them at a disadvantage in Anglo-oriented schools. A careful study on standard English (SE) and nonstandard Hawaiian English (NHE) fifth graders demonstrated that teachers consistently have lower expectations for NHE speakers. However, these children do not develop intellectual deficiencies as a result of an "inferior" language (Choy and Dodd 1976). Academic difficulties manifested by NHE children were at least partially a result of inexperience with the SE-oriented school situation.

Samoans

An estimated 48,250 Samoans reside in the United States (Lewthwaite 1973). Of these, approximately 33,000 live in California, 12,000 in Hawaii. Very little written information is available on the childrearing practices and learning characteristics of Samoan people. In describing differences among several cultural groups on creativity, one observer described Western Samoan culture as suppressing creative and independent thinking from birth (Torrance 1962). Samoan teachers seemed to highly value quietness and remembering well in pupils. Compared to teachers of other cultures, Samoan teachers found such traits as adventurousness, being a self-starter, curiosity, determination, and self-sufficiency as being less important for students. Factors suggested as underlying these patterns included a strong patri-

archal family system and acceptance of authority relationships. It is not clear, however, to what extent these findings can be generalized to Samoan children now living in the United States.

Asian American Education Project

Only one study devoted specifically to the learning characteristics of preschool-age Asian American children was found: The Asian American Education Project (Chan, Takanishi, and Kitano 1975). Its purpose was to determine similarities and differences in Asian American children's learning styles and competencies before they entered public school. The sample consisted of 18 Chinese, 22 Japanese, 18 Korean, 16 Filipino, and 17 Hawaiian American children, all between the ages of four and five. Procedures for collecting data included structured mother-child observations and child testing.

Structured Mother-Child Observations

These observations were designed to characterize mother-child interactions in a structured teaching situation. Quality and frequency of mothers' verbal and nonverbal assistance, reinforcement and attention to the child's activity, as well as the child's responses and attention to the mother, were recorded. Data analyzed for Chinese, Japanese, and Korean samples revealed wide within-group differences. As a result, no patterns of mother-child behavior could be derived that would apply to each mother-child pair in an ethnic group. These results again question the practice of dealing with Asian groups as homogenous entities.

Child Testing

Test data described children's performance on measures of learning style, perceptual-motor skill, and quantitative concepts.

Two types of learning style, field independence-dependence and conceptual tempo were assessed. The dimension of field independence-dependence concerns individual variations in amount of differentiation in a perceptual field. Field independence has been positively related to task-oriented behavior and reading success. Field dependence has been correlated with sensitivity to social cues and incidental learning (Keogh 1973). Preliminary analysis of project data suggested that Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Hawaiian children's mean field independence scores were similar across groups and compared well to scores for same-age middle class Anglo children. The results may be interpreted as indicating that, in general, Asian American children in these ethnic groups enter school with a well-formulated field independent perceptual style. Filipino children in the sample tended to be more field dependent than children in other groups.

Conceptual tempo, or the dimension of reflection-impulsivity, concerns the degree to which an individual reflects on alternative solutions when several are simultaneously available. An impulsive response style has been related to reading difficulties and problem solving inefficiency, and its assessment may be useful for early identification of potential learning problems (Epstein, Hallahan, and Kauffman 1975). The data suggested that the Chinese children in general demonstrated a slower tempo, or were more reflective than any other group. Hawaiian children were the next most reflective, followed by Japanese, Koreans, and Filipinos. Boys in the Chinese sample tended to be more reflective than girls and took nearly twice the time to respond than males in other ethnic groups. Japanese and Hawaiian girls, however, tended to have more reflective responses than their male counterparts.

In general, children in the study exhibited normal perceptual-motor development, as indicated on a task requiring re-

production of abstract forms. In one area of visual development (matching identical forms), Filipino youngsters scored slightly lower than children in the other groups and the standardization sample. As a whole, however, the Asian American children tested compared well to standardization norms, demonstrating competence in form discrimination.

A second visual discrimination task involving letter and number recognition and discrimination revealed wide within-group differences. These may have been due to variations in English language proficiency. The overall sample mean fell within the 49th percentile on norms, although scores for a large proportion of the sample fell above and below that marker. These findings suggest that Asian American preschoolers vary normally on symbol recognition and discrimination, with some performing well and some poorly. In general, it appears that while Asian American children were able to discriminate forms, figures, letters, and numbers, matching verbal labels to letters and numbers in English presented some difficulty.

The third area of child testing was quantitative concepts. Children were administered a preschool instrument designed to assess mastery of (a) correspondence between numbers of objects and their symbolic numerical representation, (b) comparative and relational terms (e.g., largest and smallest), and (c) numerical concepts (e.g., more, most, least, fewest). A rough comparison between sample children's mean scores and normative data for preschool and kindergarten youngsters suggested that Asian American children in general have achieved an average or better level of quantitative concept development by the time they reach school age. By group, mean scores for Filipino, Japanese, and Chinese children exceeded that for kindergarten norms. As a whole, the Korean sample scored just under the kindergarten norm, while the Hawaiian children

achieved slightly below the preschool average.

Implications for Education

The available research on Asian Americans and preliminary data from the Asian American Education Project reveal three general findings. First, Asian American cultural groups possess distinct value clusters that influence school behavior and frequently bring children into conflict with the dominant Anglo culture of the school. Second, although they are similar in many respects, historical, cultural, and learning differences exist *between* Asian American groups. Hence, it is unfair to consider Asian Americans as a single homogeneous ethnic group. Third, *within* each group there are wide individual differences. With consideration to the tentative nature of contributing data, the present section will review the major findings and suggest educational implications for each.

Culture Conflict

Value differences between cultural groups may lead to conflict, especially where Asian American children's behavior fails to conform to the expectations of schools that represent the dominant culture. Cultural values may affect children's motivation, personality, and language. The Hawaiian culture, for example, appears to value group as opposed to individual achievement. As a result, Hawaiian children tend to be more motivated to work for group rather than individual rewards. Hawaiian children's preference for cooperative or shared work challenges the school's demand for individual competition and independence. In the area of personality, available literature has suggested that Chinese, Japanese, and Samoan cultural expectations for obedience fosters conforming, dependent children. Moreover, it is possible that mother-child interactions that fail to em-

phasize verbal behavior may predispose Japanese children to restrict verbal participation in classroom situations. With regard to language, Asian American children, particularly recent immigrants and nonstandard Hawaiian English speakers, face barriers in English-dominant schools.

Two opposing teaching approaches have been suggested in the literature to deal with discrepancies between the child's culture and that of the school. The "cultural deficit" viewpoint advocates changing the *child* to conform to the school's demands. Supporters of this approach contend that school is a preparation for life and as such, must encourage children to adopt styles that will lead to success in a competitive, dominant-culture world. In contrast, the "cultural difference" perspective suggests that *teaching practices* be altered to meet the child's needs. According to the difference viewpoint, cultural patterns, including language and motivational sets that deviate from the Anglo norm, are different but equally valid and acceptable. Both approaches to education of culturally different children have advantages and disadvantages. Should the teacher attempt to anglicize Asian American children in terms of motivation, personality, and language in order to facilitate success in an Anglo dominant world? Or should the teacher accept the child's existing characteristics and use them to advance learning?

While there certainly is room for compromise, the decision is a serious one and can have profound effects on the child's life in and beyond school. For this reason, parents should be consulted in establishing the child's educational program. A structured, carefully planned interview should be conducted to determine parents' objectives for their child and what they perceive to be the school's role in meeting these objectives.

Some Vietnamese parents express concern that their children will lose traditional patterns of behavior such as respect

to family honor and awarding of social praise, for example, may be motivating to Filipino youngsters who value social responsibility and approval. Similarly, teachers might utilize Hawaiian children's group orientation by presenting new concepts or reinforcing learned concepts through group projects. Individual art projects may be varied with cooperative ones, such as a jointly conceived and jointly executed mural. Children could work with partners in completing reading and arithmetic exercises. Group and affiliative tendencies can also be used to motivate desirable behavior. Children who reach their achievement objectives might be rewarded with permission to participate in team games. In addition, an individual child's behavior (e.g., seat-sitting) perhaps can be improved if the entire class' receipt of reward (e.g., free time) is contingent upon that child's improvement. In general, demand for competition should be relaxed and group achievement emphasized.

Studies on between-group differences in self-concept may also have implications for classroom behavior. Several tentative suggestions can be drawn from the finding that Korean American children may possess a relatively low self-concept for popularity and physical appearance. Korean children's small numbers encourage constant comparison with Anglo rather than other Korean children. As a result, Korean children may feel that they are physically different and therefore less popular. Instilling a sense of pride in children from minority groups can help elevate self-concept. Activities such as group discussions, self-exploration, and celebrations of cultural events may help children understand and appreciate how people are different (Chang 1975).

Learning styles. While tentative in nature, results of several investigations point to differences among Asian American groups in approaches to learning. Awareness of these differences may aid teachers

in determining appropriate instructional strategies. It will be recalled, for example, that investigations of Western Samoan and bilingual Chinese children suggested that these youngsters may have difficulty with certain aspects of creativity. To the extent that these findings can be generalized to Samoan and Chinese children living in the United States, several activities may be suggested to stimulate creativity. First, demands for structure and rigidity can be reduced and emphasis on correctness and conformity diminished at appropriate times. Group problem solving and brainstorming over common concerns may be introduced to encourage flexibility and fluency in thinking. Children might also be asked to examine interesting pictures or objects to stimulate creative writing. Acceptance of all ideas and reward for productivity versus accuracy can also enhance creative thinking.

As suggested by preliminary data on cognitive styles from the Asian American Education Project, Filipino preschoolers may be more field dependent than other Asian American children. Second, Chinese American youngsters may enter school with a highly reflective response style, taking a relatively long time to answer questions. The major implication of these findings is that teachers must recognize that differences may exist between Asian groups in learning strategies. A wide repertoire of instructional methods will be needed to provide the best match between a child's cognitive style and the teaching technique. Educators must be sensitive to the idea that different children may require different methods. Field dependent children, for example, might be sensitive to social cues and be more susceptible to incidental learning and contextual elements. Teachers may need to allow extra time for reflective Chinese American youngsters to respond to questions. Exercises which demand immediate reactions should be avoided except where slow decision making is deemed maladaptive.

for their fathers and ancestors (Maldonado 1976). Korean parents also want their children to continue studying Korean language and culture (Hahn and Dobb 1975). For these and other Asian groups, there appears to be a definite need for a bilingual, bicultural program that would facilitate acquisition of English while maintaining and improving native language skill and cultural pride. Inclusion of parents as consultants and as volunteer classroom aides may help provide continuity between school and home in values and behavioral expectations. Meetings with specific groups of Asian American parents may expose common concerns and help educators give support to the children and the parents themselves. For example, teachers may, upon request, demonstrate methods of reinforcing children's verbal behavior for groups of parents who express concern over their children's verbal participation in school.

Where Asian American children live in areas isolated from others of the same ethnic group, a bilingual traveling teacher model may be an appropriate way to deliver services to several isolated families of the same ethnic group (Hahn and Dobb 1975). Consistent with the need for parent involvement noted above, the traveling teacher interviews the children, conducts educational testing in both English and the native language, and meets with the child's parents. Based on information thus derived, the teacher plans and implements individual instructional programs, spending one day a week at each child's school. Homework assignments given in the native language allow parents to help their children and become more involved in their education. The traveling teacher also provides in-service training for the children's regular teachers to improve their awareness of the children's background and to help them better relate.

Between-Group Differences

Studies on different Asian American cultures refute the common tendency to

view Asian Americans as a single entity. Asian American groups may differ from each other in background characteristics, affective traits, learning style, school readiness, and in other areas not yet investigated. In considering the various attributes that researchers have attributed to individual Asian American groups, it is important to caution that non-Asians (Anglos, Blacks) usually have been used as the comparative sample. Hence, while only one Asian group is reported as displaying a certain set of characteristics, it is possible that other Asians exhibit a similar set. Nevertheless, until further research demonstrates that the traits studied are shared by many Asians, it will be assumed that these attributes can at present be applied only to the population studied.

Background characteristics. The "model minority" stereotype often leads educators to believe that Asian American children begin school with many advantages due to the economic and educational success of their parents. As suggested by census and Asian American Education Project data, however, parental occupation and education differ by cultural group. Moreover, children from different cultural groups may have had different immigration experiences that might also affect school behavior. The special situation of Vietnamese children is a case in point. As noted earlier, Vietnamese children who lived in or near the war-stricken area may demonstrate overly shy and unstable behavior. Those who were confined to refugee camps and had negative contact with American military police may avoid or be wary of Americans. Teachers need to understand these children's background experiences and treat them with patience, encouragement, and friendliness (Dinh 1976).

Affective traits. The review of literature pointed to the possible existence of affective sets that may characterize certain Asian American groups and have implications for instructional practices. Appeals

Finally, some educational considerations can be derived from recent descriptive literature on learning styles of Vietnamese refugees. The passive role of students in Vietnamese schools may influence the expectations of Vietnamese children in America. For children who have experienced school in Vietnam, a gradual transition is required from rote memorization, copying, and recitation to American expectations for discussion and initiative in learning. A teacher's insistence on immediate adaptation to unfamiliar American methods will create frustration and humiliation (Maldonado 1976). Initial use of rote techniques with gradual addition of other approaches can help Vietnamese students adjust. Younger children who have not experienced school in Vietnam will adapt more easily to American schooling. Parent counseling may be beneficial, however, since parents may retain their previous expectations for their children's educational experiences.

School readiness. Asian American Education Project data indicated that as a whole, Asian American children enter school with a good grasp of the visual discrimination skills and quantitative concepts important for school readiness. Preliminary analyses by group, however, suggested that Filipino children in the sample had more difficulty in visual discrimination than other groups. Hawaiian children performed slightly lower than the norms for quantitative concept development. Although correlational analyses have not yet been done, it is possible that these children's performance may have been related to a shorter time of school-type experience. Again, the implication is that teachers should be prepared to expect differences in readiness for school. Asian American preschoolers having difficulty with skills prerequisite for reading and arithmetic should be given supportive help. They should not be ignored under the expectation that all will be successful achievers without assistance.

A final point about between-group differences merits comment: despite some shared customs, Japanese, Chinese, Filipino, Vietnamese, Korean, Hawaiian, and Samoan people do have different languages and may celebrate different cultural events. Well-intentioned educators commonly assume that recognizing the Chinese Lunar New Year or making *origami* decorations satisfies the objective of cultural awareness for *all* Asian American students. Yet these activities are not relevant to some Asian American groups. Exploring a separate aspect of culture for each Asian group represented in the classroom may enhance the individuality of all children and help them recognize their own value as human beings.

Within-Group Differences

The third major finding of this review was that individual differences exist within each Asian American group. Investigations of children within a group reveal child by child differences that cross-cultural studies tend to mask. For example, comparisons among ethnicities suggest that Japanese Americans as a group tend to be conservative and inhibited. Yet some Japanese Americans are outgoing and assertive. Child test data from the Asian American Education Project can be interpreted as indicating that each Asian group exhibits a variety of skill levels depending on the individual child's attributes. English versus an Asian language dominance, for instance, may contribute to within-group variation in letter recognition. Observations of mother-child interactions in the same study also demonstrated greater within- than between-group differences in maternal teaching styles. Such intragroup variation requires that teachers consider children's cultural background and at the same time recognize each child as an individual whose characteristics may or may not fall within the norms for his or her cultural group.

A Final Word

The study of Asian American early education has been limited and unsystematic, with few apparent attempts to interrelate and build upon existing knowledge. Moreover, the literature's preliminary nature precludes drawing firm conclusions and advocacy of definitive teaching practices. Yet taken together, the available studies suggest some general methods that offer educators a place to begin in teaching Asian American youngsters. Discretion must be exercised in generalizing use of these practices until their efficacy is confirmed through research. Until specific instructional techniques have been developed and validated, educators can enhance the school experience of Asian American children in several ways. Educators must become sensitive to special needs, for example in the areas of language and self-concept. Much can be learned about historical, cultural, and stylistic factors that influence Asian American children's school behavior. Finally, it is imperative to recognize and treat Asian American children as the individuals they truly are.

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Patricia G. Ramsey

Beyond "Ten Little Indians" and Turkeys

Alternative Approaches to Thanksgiving

Several student teachers and I were engaged in a discussion about how Thanksgiving might be observed in the classroom. "I know!" said one student eagerly, "We could sing 'Ten Little Indians!'" I inwardly groaned, "Oh, no! Not again!" The student, sensing my reaction, quickly added, "We did it last year at my day care practicum site. We made the children headdresses, and they marched around and sang the song. They loved it!" Another student chimed in, "We sang 'Ten Little Indians' every day last summer at the camp where I worked. It was their favorite song!" Other students nodded in agreement and cast puzzled looks in my direction. How do the values and attitudes implied in this song and related activities render them inadequate for promoting an authentic understanding of Thanksgiving?

First of all, what is wrong with "Ten Little Indians?" Try singing it with commonly used names of other ethnic groups. How does "Ten Little Anglos," "Ten Little Negroes," "Ten Little Polacks," or "Ten Little Orientals" sound? Make up a verse inserting a similar term for your own ethnic group. How do you respond? Do these verses enhance children's understanding and appreciation of the specified groups?

"Ten Little Indians" objectifies Native Americans. It does not reflect their diverse lifestyles, histories, work, music, or cele-

brations; it simply counts them. Counting songs are a popular early childhood activity, but the objects counted are usually "Little Green Bottles," "Five Little Monkeys," or "Five Little Pumpkins." The inclusion of "Indians" as objects to be counted implicitly equates this group of people with inanimate things or animals. Moreover, it reinforces the European-assigned term for Native Americans. Thus, far from contributing to children's understanding of people, instead the song supports the dehumanized, static, and undifferentiated image of Native Americans that has prevailed in this country for the past 250 years.

Thanksgiving is also frequently observed by dressing children in "Indian Headdresses" and "Pilgrim Hats" and enacting "The First Thanksgiving." Usually the event is described as a time when the "Indians" and "Pilgrims" helped each other harvest the crops and celebrated by feasting together. These enactments often reinforce dehumanized stereotypes of Native Americans. One classroom I observed recently had a Thanksgiving program in which the boy and girl Pilgrims had a feast

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with the "Indians" (no sex differentiation). The Pilgrims, who were given names, entered carrying food; the "Indians," who were designated by number, were instructed to sneak "Indian style" into the classroom.

All too often, these observances also convey the misconception that Thanksgiving is a universal day of rejoicing that marks the advent of a mutually beneficial relationship between the European settlers and the Native peoples. The fact is, of course, that the arrival of the Europeans disrupted and debilitated the Native American way of life. Black Elk lamented this passage of events.

Once we were happy in our own country and we were seldom hungry, for then the two-leggeds and the four-leggeds lived together like relatives, and there was plenty for them and for us. But the Wasichus [white men] came, and they made little islands for us and other little islands for the four-leggeds, and always these little islands are becoming smaller, for around them surges the gnawing flood of the Wasichus; and it is dirty with lies and greed. (Niehardt 1932, p. 9)

Many Native American groups regard Thanksgiving as a Day of Mourning and observe it with fasting and vigils. For them, it is a symbol of the Europeans' first foothold on the North American continent and the demise of the Native way of life.

A colleague of mine, who is an Algonquin, tells of her daughter's encounter with the popular view of Thanksgiving. One November Little Fawn, always a good student, started refusing to go to her elementary school or to do her work. When questioned by her mother, she explained that a picture of "The First Thanksgiving" had been put up near her desk. It portrayed happy Pilgrims and smiling Indians embracing and sharing their food. For a child raised to consider Thanksgiving as a mournful symbol of her people's destruction, the picture evoked many feelings of alienation, anger, and sorrow and inhibited her ability and will-

ingness to participate in the classroom. Fortunately, in this case, the teacher, when approached by the mother, quickly grasped the significance of the picture and removed it. With the help of Little Fawn and her mother, she attempted to rectify the situation by developing classroom activities and discussions that more authentically represented the relationship between the Native peoples and the European settlers.

Children need to be aware of the experiences of all the groups involved in order to really understand the significance of historical events. Since the media, religious groups, and commercial establishments usually emphasize the benefits of Thanksgiving from the European settlers' point of view, it is particularly important that the schools stress the other perspectives.

Thus, there are three questions that should be asked when considering any plans for observing Thanksgiving in the classroom:

(1) Do the proposed activities in any way support or reinforce negative and dehumanized images of Native Americans?

(2) Do they imply or confirm historical misconceptions about the relationship between the Europeans and Native Americans?

(3) Are the experiences of all the people involved realistically represented?

In contrast to the traditional Anglo-centric celebrations, there are several approaches to observing Thanksgiving that are potential vehicles for expanding children's awareness and appreciation of shared human experiences and cultural differences. In planning these activities, teachers should critically review underlying attitudes and assumptions in their curriculum and select activities meaningful to the children. While implementing these activities, it is important to be constantly alert to the interpretations and conceptions that children are acquiring. Some of these alternative approaches are described in the following discussion.



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How do the values and attitudes implied in "Ten Little Indians" and related activities, such as this, render them inadequate for promoting an authentic understanding of Thanksgiving?

Community Feast

Aside from its commemorative aspects, Thanksgiving has traditionally been a feast, a gathering of friends and relations who share their food. Feasts occur throughout the world in a variety of forms. By planning, preparing, and hosting a community feast, children may develop a more conscious awareness of this universal type of social occasion. The concept that many people feast in lots of different ways at different times can be conveyed by including guests from different backgrounds, pictures of various types of feasts, and a variety of ethnic foods, rituals, music, and dancing. Parents and community people should be involved at all stages of the planning. If the community is homogeneous in terms of cultural backgrounds, then different customs for feasting can be researched and introduced to the children in activities meaningful to them and with vicarious experiences such

as stories and photographs. Viewed from a more anthropological perspective, Thanksgiving becomes one feast among many that are celebrated throughout the world. Thus, the static, one-sided view of Thanksgiving may be neutralized by placing it in a more global context.

Harvest Celebrations

Thanksgiving is also one of many similar harvest celebrations observed by various societies. Each celebration has unique features, but the themes of gratitude, recognition of the human dependence on nature, and appreciation of the work of those who cultivate the land emerge consistently. A very comprehensive curriculum can be developed around this theme. Activities that focus on the essential meaning of the harvest, which include reaping the produce of the school garden, visiting nearby farms, studying different

kinds of produce, and planting and observing window gardens, can stimulate awareness and understanding of the importance of the harvest.

As with the theme of feasting, the concept that many people celebrate the harvest in different ways may be conveyed by incorporating several celebrations. Again, which ones are included may depend, to some extent, on the cultural groups in the class and surrounding community. Some possibilities include the Japanese Labor Thanksgiving, the Jewish holiday of Sukkot, the Moslem celebration of Ashura, the British and Canadian observance of Harvest Home, and the African festival of Kwanza (Flemming et al. 1977). Native American harvest festivals include, among many others, the Iroquois Green Corn Festival, the Creek and Cherokee Great Bush Festival, and the Natchez Month of the Great Corn.

Because of climatic and seasonal differences, the designated dates for these festivals do not necessarily coincide with Thanksgiving. For young children, however, the general theme is more meaningful than the actual date. Thus, some liberties with the calendar dates (including that of Thanksgiving) will not be confusing. By focusing on the universal, yet unique elements of several harvest festivals, this curriculum may broaden children's awareness and appreciation of human experience, rather than simply reinforce the Anglo-centric view of American history.

Hunting

During the month of November, most early childhood classrooms become a veritable forest of turkey facsimiles. They come in all forms: collages, stenciled spatter paintings, decorated handprints, gum drop and marshmallow sculptures, and, occasionally, a giant papier-mâché statue. While cooked turkeys are a rele-

vant part of Thanksgiving for many children, turkey replicas are often introduced as an art project or show up on a ditto with little or no discussion about their significance.

Turkeys, along with other game animals, were and are an important source of food. While turkeys are no longer wild in many parts of this country, they symbolize the importance of hunting, which is another universal theme. Despite the popular image of hunting as a sport, many people, here and in other countries, depend on their hunting skills to survive. Many rituals, celebrations, and artifacts found throughout the world attest to the importance of hunting. The close and respectful relationship between the human and animal world is a frequent theme in both historical and contemporary Native American myths, songs, and commentary.

Young children, who have no knowledge of hunting, often respond to this topic with fear, revulsion, or excited gun play. Their reactions reflect both their lack of experience with this basic life-sustaining process and the infusion of "westerns" and other gun-related stories on television and in movies. In contrast, I once heard a group of young rural Vermont children describe in detail the skills and steps involved in tracking and shooting deer.

Teachers can help to counteract children's misconceptions about hunting and hunters by describing, enacting, and showing pictures of the many different types of prey and styles of hunting. The point that hunting requires a great deal of physical skill, knowledge about animal ways, patience, and, in some cases (such as the seal hunting of the Eskimos), a high level of cooperation should be emphasized. Also, stressing the ingenious and careful use of all parts of the animal may help to dispell the image of wanton and careless killing.

As with the feasting and harvest celebrations, the types of hunting that are introduced may depend largely on the ages

and experiences of the children and the customs of the community. The underlying themes that hunting provides many people with food, clothing, and materials, and that there are many kinds of hunting throughout the world can be conveyed through stories and pictures from many cultures.

Thus, the symbol of the turkey, often reduced to a mere art project, can be expanded to provide authentic information about another aspect of human experience that is shared and yet uniquely expressed throughout the world.

A Study of Native Americans

Since the subject of "Indians" often arises in conjunction with Thanksgiving, the negative images that children have internalized often emerge in their play and conversation around this time. Moreover, they are exposed to the stereotyped "Indian motif" on a lot of Thanksgiving programs and products. Thus, one appropriate observance of Thanksgiving is a curriculum that challenges these distorted views of Native people by providing authentic information.

One November, two kindergarten teachers I know were discussing Thanksgiving with their class. As soon as the word *Indian* was mentioned, the children started talking about how "Indians kill you; they steal and eat children; they have tomahawks and scalp you." The conversation was liberally laced with war whoops and scalping motions. The teachers were appalled at the vividness and strength of the children's negative stereotyped images.

In order to record and assess the children's attitudes more systematically, the teachers videotaped interviews with the children on the subject of "Indians." The children expressed a great deal of interest in the topic, but their comments consis-

tently contained dehumanized and violent images. They emphatically denied that an "Indian" could be a teacher and, when asked what "Indians" do, they responded with descriptions of various kinds of killing. Moreover, the children tended to assume that "Indians" had only lived in the past.

Determined to dispell these misconceptions, the teachers developed a six-week integrated plan of study about Native peoples. They endeavored to make the experiences as concrete and relevant as possible. Rather than simply convey information, they actively involved the children in activities that replicated some aspects of the Native Americans' ways of life. Because of the nature of the material and the initial high degree of interest, the children participated very enthusiastically, and involvement in the subject persisted long after the six weeks ended.

The teachers planned to continuously challenge children's stereotyped images by providing authentic information that contradicted their original perceptions. Since one major goal was to have the children develop a more differentiated view of Native Americans, the diversity of the groups and the differences between historical and contemporary life were emphasized. Efforts were made to help children understand that Native Americans are individuals who have many needs, interests, and feelings that are common to all of us. Experiences included guests from Native American student groups and a local reservation as well as trips to a museum and a local reservation.

The curriculum covered historical and contemporary dances, music, occupations, and lifestyles of different Native American groups. When the children built structures that replicated a variety of Native American homes, the teachers pointed out how each type of dwelling was a response to that particular group's needs in terms of climate, food gathering, and available building materials. Because

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of the stereotyped image of "Indians living in tipis," they emphasized other historical dwellings such as the Pueblo houses and the long houses of the Iroquois and the Navajos' hogans. They also included descriptions and pictures of contemporary housing of Native people, both on reservations and in cities. The teachers found that the children easily grasped and enjoyed the communication systems historically used by some of the groups, such as the picture writing of the Plains people and the hand sign language that was developed to facilitate intergroup communication. To avoid undue emphasis on exotic differences, the teachers introduced clothing, tools, foods, music, and dances in carefully articulated contexts that related to the children's own experiences. Needless to say, the teachers continually challenged the images of violence and savagery that the children associated with "Indians."

There was some evidence that this curriculum had a positive effect on the children's attitudes. In the followup interviews, the children's comments were markedly changed from their earlier statements. The children described Native Americans in terms of the diversity among the groups, the changes from past to present, and the similarities with their own lives. Moreover, they were able to criticize some obviously stereotyped pictures.

Since the tradition of Thanksgiving does allude to the history of Native Americans and is an occasion when misconceptions about these groups and their relationship with the Europeans are particularly prevalent, it is an appropriate time to provide children with information and experiences that challenge these stereotypes. An excellent source of information and guidelines for this type of curriculum is *Unlearning "Indian" Stereotypes*, published by The Council on Interracial Books for Children, 1841 Broadway, New York, NY 10023.

Social and Political Issues

The story of Thanksgiving is one chapter in the long history of the European settlers and the Native Americans. While Thanksgiving itself symbolizes the hospitality of the Native groups and the gratitude of the Europeans, most of the ensuing events involved combat, distrust, broken promises, losses for both sides, and the virtual destruction of the Native peoples. In fact, recent efforts to verify the occurrence of "The First Thanksgiving" have raised doubts as to whether or not such a feast actually occurred at all (Bushnell 1978; Davids and Gudinas 1976). Because the European point of view is so dominant, it is important that children learn about these conflicts from other perspectives.

Some of the social issues that can be drawn from a study of Thanksgiving are the struggle for control of land and resources; the difficulty that people from different groups have understanding and respecting each other; the loss that one group suffers when another one becomes dominant; and the anger and frustration people feel when they lose their homes and livelihoods. It is important that these issues not be treated in a dogmatic way. For children to come home saying, "All White people are bad because they hurt Indians" is not much better than the original stereotype. Efforts can be more productively directed toward helping children understand that when two or more groups of people want the same resources (a theme that reoccurs throughout world history), there are many opposing points of view.

Clearly, the presentation of social issues to young children is difficult, and this content is probably more appropriate for early elementary age children than for those under the age of six. First and foremost, it requires that teachers examine their own attitudes about social relationships and discuss their plans with parents and colleagues. Teachers need to closely

monitor the children's responses to activities and discussions to insure that they are really understanding the issue and are not simply repeating what they hear.

Linking the issues closely to the children's own experiences may help to promote this understanding. For example, most children have experienced conflicts over space and materials. A discussion about the struggle for control of land and resources and the consequences of loss and gain experienced by the Europeans and Native Americans might begin with the child's own experiences and feelings about property conflicts. In all cases, these issues should be presented in as tangible and understandable a manner as possible.

One successful effort to convey these concepts to young children using a role playing technique is described in the following account. A first grade teacher (Califf 1977) reported that her class enacted the arrival of the Europeans and the response of the Lenni Lenape, who at that time lived in what is now called New Jersey. In their re-enactment, as the number of "Europeans" increased, the "Native people" were pushed further and further into a corner of the room and their initial hospitality changed to a defensive and angry stance. Eventually a "war" broke out. In the ensuing discussion, the children, who had previously described Indians as "killers" and "savages," talked about how the Lenni Lenape had to fight because the White people were taking away all of their land. By even briefly experiencing the loss of land in a very tangible way, the children were able to understand and empathize with the actions of the Lenni Lenape.

By exposing children to some of the conflicts and issues that are related to Thanksgiving, we can provide a more realistic view of American history that includes the perspectives of all points of view. Moreover, we can help children develop a context for understanding that both historically and currently there are

often conflicting needs that create disputes among different groups of people.

Conclusion

Thanksgiving observances in the schools often reinforce an Anglo-centric and superficial view of American history. The relationships between Europeans and Native groups are usually misconstrued, and dehumanized stereotypes of "Indians" are frequently promoted. Thanksgiving cannot be dismissed as simply an excuse for a classroom party. Nor can we say it is only an occasion for talking about what we are thankful for. **Thanksgiving is related to many historical, social, and political issues that simply cannot be ignored.** Since the media, religious groups, and other social institutions reinforce the traditional Anglo-centric image of Thanksgiving, it is particularly important that we, as teachers, try to help children see Thanksgiving in a more realistic and global context.

The approaches to Thanksgiving described in this article are directed toward challenging popular misconceptions and expanding and enhancing children's social awareness. Holidays are important elements in early childhood education, but all too often, they are presented in a trite and superficial way. We need to recognize their broader social significance and convey this understanding to children in the most meaningful and developmentally appropriate ways that we can.

Because Thanksgiving incorporates the universal themes of feasting, harvesting, and hunting, it is an excellent opportunity to enhance children's awareness and appreciation of common human experiences and unique cultural expressions. It is also a time to challenge some of the damaging misconceptions that children have acquired about Native Americans and the history of this country. There are many rich learning experiences that go far beyond "Ten Little Indians."

This November, as you start to read the words, "When the first people came to this country. . . " stop and think. . .

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Suggested Resources

Some of these books can be used with children, others provide background information for teachers.

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Filmstrips:

Understanding Early Childhood--Ages 1 through 6, Parents Magazine Filmstrips.

Videos:

Use of NAEYC videos:

Examples: **Seeing Infants with New Eyes with Magda Gerger**

Babies and Child Care with Burton White

Available from: NAEYC, 1834 Connecticut Avenue, Washington, DC 20009-5786

Lubchenco, A. 1981. **Spoonful of Lovin': A Manual for Day Care Providers.** Denver, CO, Mile High Child Care Association.

A comprehensive resource guide for individual day care providers at home -- also a video series of five, 30 minutes programs is available. The manual and video series can be used together or independently. The programs are shown frequently on public TV stations.

For further information contact:

Agency for Instructional Television
Box A
Bloomington, IN 47402
(812) 339-2203

In Washington State, contact:

Washington Early Childhood Telecommunications Project
Early Childhood Outreach Center
University of Washington
4725 30th Avenue NE GG-12
Seattle, WA 98195
(206) 543-9414

Periodicals:

Child Care Resources Magazine
Quality Child Care Press
P. O. Box 324
Mound, MN 55364

Early Childhood Research Quarterly
Ablex Publishing Corporation
355 Chestnut Street
Norwood, NJ 07648

This journal presents research and scholarship that will enhance theory, research and practice related to the care and education of children from birth through eight years.

Child Care Information Exchange
P. O. Box 2890
Redmond, WA 98073

This magazine is designed for day care directors but contains much information on families, working with other staff members and business matters for parents and providers which would be of use to Family Day Care Providers.

Pre-K Today

Scholastic Inc.

P. O. Box 8805

Boulder, Colorado 80328-8805

This magazine is designed for busy day care teachers/providers of children birth through five years and offers curriculum ideas, information sheets for parents, activity plans for children 2-5 years, a babyroom page, and health and safety information.

Young Children

1834 Connecticut Avenue NW

Washington, D. C. 20009-5786

This is the journal of the National Association for the Education of Young Children. It presents articles of interest in child development, families, research update, curriculum development and ideas, special problems of children and legislative concerns of children from birth through eight years.

Training Opportunities/Community Resources:**Child and Family Resource Center**

2410 East Cherry

Seattle, WA 98122

(206) 625-2729

Offers workshops and information for parents and providers

Family Matters

KIRO TV/RADIO

2807 Third

Seattle, WA 98121

KIRO has made a commitment to the public on providing information relating to families through special programming. Contact KIRO for further information.

Children's Resource Center

Children's Hospital and Medical Center

4800 Sand Point Way NE

P.O. Box C5371

Seattle, WA 98105

Children's Resource Line--(206) 526-2500. Good Growing workshop series.

These are examples of resources available in the Seattle/western Washington area. Check into additional training opportunities and resources through child and family oriented organizations, community colleges, libraries, T.V. stations, and other community oriented centers in your area.